

## To the student

Welcome to *Grammar Advantage*. Here are some tips for getting the most out of this book.

- Be sure you understand how the book is organized. See Chapter 1, especially section 1.5, *How can you get use Grammar Advantage effectively?*
- Pay attention to both the explanatory parts and the examples. If you have a hard time understanding a rule, often the examples will help. Some students, when they first look at a chapter, look at the examples first.
- Pay attention to **lexical grammar** as well as regular grammar. Regular grammar is the grammar that always (or almost always) applies. Lexical grammar is the grammar of individual words. For example, we say *enjoy doing* but not usually *enjoy to do*. In contrast, both *like doing* and *like to do* are correct. That's lexical grammar. Lexical grammar is often especially important with verbs. Many of the charts in this book show lexical grammar information.
- Use the glossary — the explanations of grammar terms at the end of the book. Sometimes the glossary includes information that goes beyond the scope of the chapters.
- Pay special attention to exercises marked *High priority*. Go to GrammarAdvantage.com for an answer key to odd-numbered items in the exercises. Checking the key will let you know if you're on the right track.

## To the teacher

*Grammar Advantage*, based on the authors' decades of experience teaching and investigating English grammar, is a course text and self-study tool for advanced learners of English as a second language (C-TOEFL score of at least 190 or equivalent). It highlights topics of special importance to academic writing. The explanatory parts and examples are designed to be easy for teachers to use in guiding students to explanations and helping them edit their work. The explanations and exercises feature real-world content along with everyday conversational English and focus on meaning and usage as well as form.

Coverage of basic rules and finer points of usage help students understand not just basic grammar but how individual words are used (lexical grammar). An important feature of many of the charts is the use of words in phrases. For example, a display of verbs that are often followed by a gerund (Chapter 6) lists verbs in phrases like *enjoy visiting museums*, *finish getting dressed*, and *regret not studying*. These are a reminder to students (they are less likely to forget what the list is supposed to show) and they often suggest questions that can be raised in class, such as *Do you enjoy visiting museums?*

Sections at the end of each chapter marked *Usage guide* include lexical grammar and finer points of usage, often related to writing. Sections on errors to avoid — at the ends of chapters — provide summaries of key points.

For an answer key and ideas about to use *Grammar Advantage*, visit GrammarAdvantage.com.

# Grammar Advantage

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## Chapter 1

# Thinking about grammar

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**IN THIS CHAPTER**  
Reflecting on grammar, grammar terms, and concepts that underlie grammar learning

## 1.1 The Invisible Gorilla

In a well-known experiment, two researchers — Christopher Chabris and Daniel Simons — asked participants to view a video of about 30 seconds. In the video, three people in light T-shirts and three in dark T-shirts pass basketballs back and forth. The participants in the experiment were asked to count the number of times a ball is passed by the players in the light T-shirts.



There is one very unexpected moment in the video: A person wearing a gorilla suit enters the scene, stays for a moment, and walks out. The gorilla is on camera for about nine seconds.

Surprisingly, about half of the participants did not notice the gorilla. The researchers concluded that when we are concentrating on a task it's hard to pay attention to other things.

## 1.2 Why pay attention to grammar?

Most people, when they speak or write, think mostly about content. Grammar is like the gorilla in the video. It's there, but you don't think about it and maybe don't even notice it.

There are times, however, when it's important to pay attention to grammar. Why? Consider the reasons below. Which do you consider most important?

- Inaccurate grammar may distract someone who is trying to understand you.
- A good understanding of grammar allows you to express ideas more clearly.
- Accurate grammar makes you sound more knowledgeable and professional.

Does inaccurate grammar distract listeners and readers? In casual conversation and writing, it may not. In academic or professional communication, it often does.

Does accurate grammar help you express your ideas more clearly?

Both structure and meaning are relevant

Does a good understanding of grammar contribute to clarity? Sometimes it does. Suppose a class is discussing an article they've read, and a student says, "I agree with the article." There is no mistake in that sentence, but it is not very clear. An article usually includes lots of ideas, so it would be clearer to say "I agree with the author that education should not be competitive," or "I agree that grading is too subjective," or "I agree that grades should be abolished." These more informative sentences use a grammar structure — noun clauses (see Ch. 7) — that allows for clearer communication.

Does accurate grammar make you sound more knowledgeable and professional? Most people would say yes. In the same way, inaccurate grammar may cause you to be judged negatively. Accurate grammar — especially in writing — is often important. On academic assignments, for example, when points may be deducted for grammar problems, accurate grammar is an advantage. To avoid distracting others, to express yourself clearly, and to present yourself well, you need that advantage. That is what *Grammar Advantage* is for.

## KEY

Ch. 6 = Chapter 6  
Ex. 23 = Exercise 23  
5.2 = Chapter 5, section 2  
2.14.3 = Chapter 2, section 14, subsection 3  
(a) = an example

## 1.3 Exercising your grammar brain

Exercise your **grammar brain** by thinking about the questions below. The goal of this exercise is to call your attention to things — like the invisible gorilla — that may be easy to miss. Both structure and meaning are relevant.

1. *Talk* and *discuss* are very similar meaning, but they are not always interchangeable. How are they different grammatically? Imagine sentences with them, and you should be able to see a grammatical difference. For a hint, look at 2.4.
2. The first two sentences below are correct. The third and fourth sentences are odd. What is odd about (c) and (d)? How are they different from (a) and (b)? For a hint, look at 9.7.3.
  - a. *While playing "Call of Duty" last night, I began to feel bored.*
  - b. *After reading it twice, I still didn't understand the paragraph.*
  - c. *While playing "Call of Duty" last night, my dog started barking.*
  - d. *After reading it twice, the paragraph still wasn't clear.*
3. Match each sentence on the left with one on the right. Think about the meaning. To learn more, see 4.12.
 

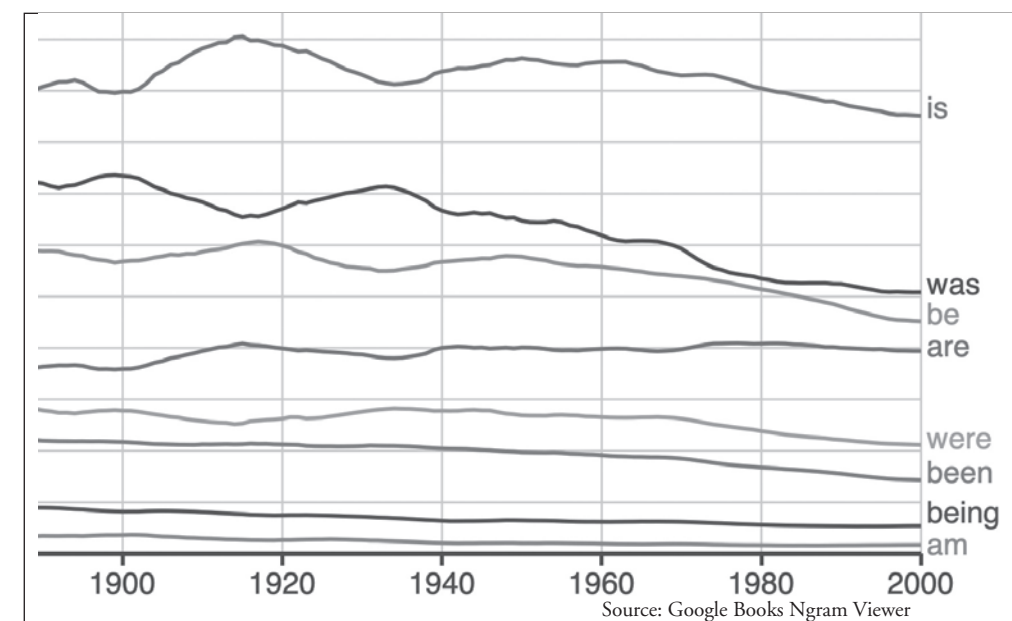
a. <i>Mark has worked as a nurse's aide.</i>	___ That's his job.
b. <i>Todd works as a nurse's aide.</i>	___ It's a temporary job.
c. <i>Alex is working as a nurse's aide.</i>	___ That was once his job.
4. When you learn certain words, you need to learn a preposition as well: *listen to*, *depend on*, etc. Do you see any examples of such words in these sentences?
  - a. *Do you have much contact with your former roommate?*
  - b. *In some cultures, people have great respect for the elderly.*
 Now how about these?
  - a. *Contact your professor if you need help.*
  - b. *We respect them because of their age and experience.*
 With words like *contact* and *respect*, when do you need a preposition and when do you not? For a hint, see 2.4.
5. Compare the ways *however* is used below. One of them is different from the others. Which one? For a hint, see 3.10 and 10.15.
  - a. *People are social animals. However, that doesn't mean everyone is equally sociable.*
  - b. *We usually eat at home. Recently, however, we've gone out a lot.*
  - c. *Some people can't quit smoking, however they try.*

6. The sentences below are usually considered incorrect. Do you know how to correct them? Which mistakes are more serious, in your view? Which are sentences that a native speaker might say or write?
  - a. *It don't make no difference.*
  - b. *English grammar doesn't works like Spanish grammar.*
  - c. *Why you don't listen when I'm talking to you?*
  - d. *The lack of jobs in small towns make it necessary for young people to move to cities.*

7. You have probably heard the sentence *Time flies like an arrow*. As a joke, that sentence is sometimes followed by this one: *Fruit flies like a banana*. Does the second sentence make sense to you? Think about the structure.

8. Many words have different forms (2.3). For example, the verb BE includes *is* and *are*. How many other forms of BE can you think of?

The eight forms of BE appear in the chart below, arranged according to their frequency in books published in the last century.



- a. Exercise your grammar brain by writing a paragraph that includes all eight forms. Try to do it with fewer than 100 words. Choose any topic: maybe your family, your interests, or the room you are sitting in right now.
- b. Then think about the grammar knowledge you have that allows you to do that. It's easy to use *is*, but *being* is harder. Why?
- c. Speculate about the ranking of forms in the chart. For example, why do you suppose *am* is so much less frequent than *is*?



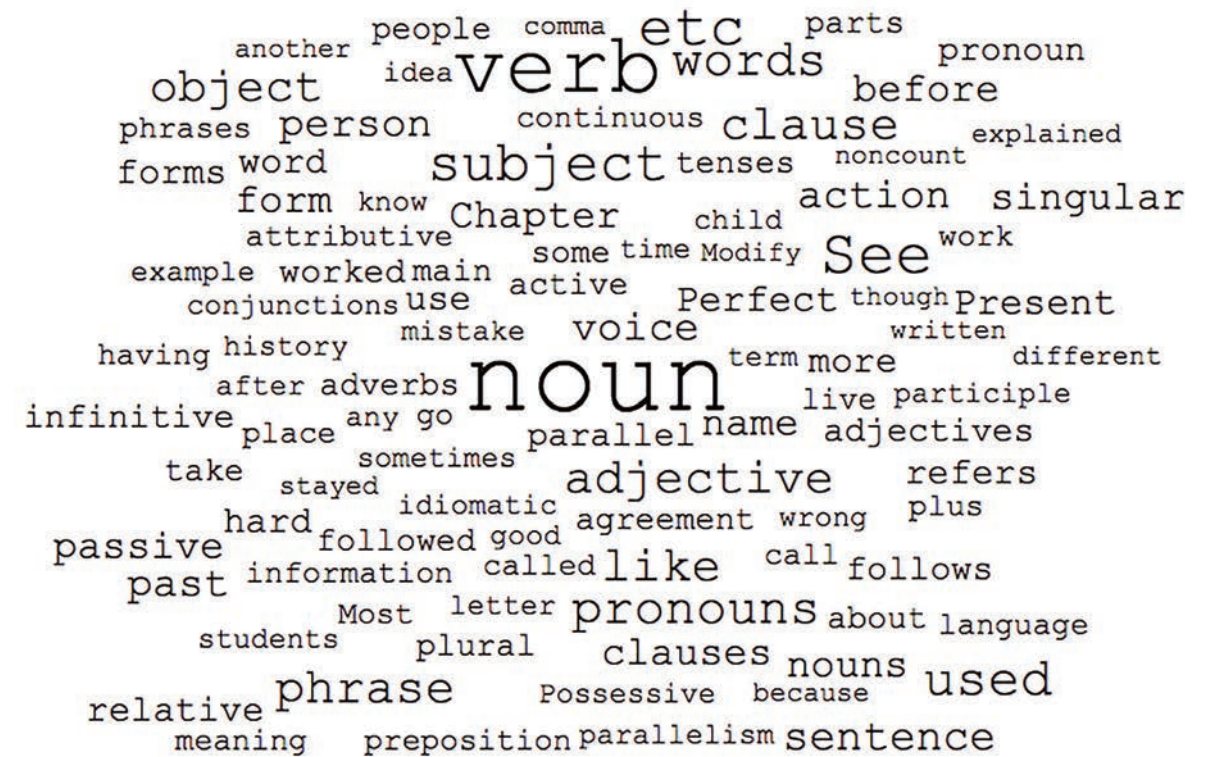
## Comments

- To complete the meaning of *talk*, we usually need a preposition, like *about*: *Let's talk about our weekend plans*. *Discuss* does not require a preposition: *Let's discuss our weekend plans*. See 2.4.
- In (c), it sounds like the dog was playing "Call of Duty." In (d), we expect a word like *I* after the first part: *After reading it twice, I still didn't understand the paragraph*. See 9.7.3.
- Mark has worked as a nurse's aide* is a good sentence if we are discussing his work experience; he once had that job. If we say *Todd works as a nurse's aide*, that is currently his job (or one of his jobs). If we say *Alex is working as a nurse's aide*, it's probably a temporary job or maybe he just started. See 4.12, 4.6, and 4.7.
- When we use *contact* as a noun (*Do you have much contact...*), we use *with*. Similarly, when we use *respect* as a noun (*great respect*), we use *for*. When these words are used as verbs, we don't use *with* or *for*. See 2.5.
- However* is usually used as it is in (a) and (b). See 3.10. *However* has another use in which it expresses the idea of "It doesn't matter" or "under any condition." See 10.15.
- It don't make no difference* is a very informal way of saying *It doesn't make any difference*. Though this usage is not appropriate in academic communication, you might hear it in a pop song. The correct version of (b) is *English grammar doesn't work like Spanish grammar*. This is not the kind of mistake native usually speakers make. They tend to follow this rule of tense formation (see 4.6) accurately and unconsciously. For (c), the correct way is *Why don't you...* Again, native speakers generally don't make mistakes like this (see 2.13) consistently. The correct version of (d) is *The lack of jobs in small towns makes it necessary for young people to move to cities*. If you don't see the difference, look again. (Don't miss the gorilla!) Also, see section 2.2.5 — especially example (a). Native speakers try to avoid errors like (d), but they don't always succeed.
- In *Time flies like an arrow*, we are talking about time and how fast it goes. In *Fruit flies like a banana*, we are not talking about fruit. We are talking about fruit flies and something they like. (Try Googling these two sentences and select *images*.) These sentences are a good reminder that a sentence is not just a series of words. Some words go together to make larger units. Exercising your grammar brain — using *Grammar Advantage* — can help you notice things like that, along with other invisible gorillas.
- a. An example paragraph: *My family is very important to me. We have always been close. We are not together very often nowadays, but last summer we were lucky enough to spend a week together. It was the best week of my year. Being with my family calms me. When I am with them, my worries go away. I hope we can be together soon.*  
 b. Observations about the forms: The form *being* allows us to use the word as a subject (6.4). *Been* is necessary after *have*, to form a specific tense (section 4.12). *Be* is used because it's the only possible form after *can*. We use *is* after *my family* because *my family* is one thing. (In some varieties of English, it might be *My family are...* Varieties of English differ in many ways.)  
 c. Observations about the ranking: Since we tend to talk a lot about ourselves and how things affect us, we might expect *am* to be higher in the ranking. However, this chart is based on books, which generally deal with larger topics in an impersonal way. The high ranking of *is* reminds us that in some ways it is the most versatile form of BE. For example, we use it in expressions like *It's easy to...* (6.7 and 6.8) and *It's important that...* (7.5), and after subjects like *Being with my family* and *Living alone* (6.4).

## 1.4 Grammar terms

If you read a paragraph filled with words like *assets, liabilities, profit, valuation, cash flow*, and *bottom line*, you probably recognize the topic as finance. Grammar, like any topic, has its own terminology. There are terms for words (*noun, verb, preposition*), structures (*noun phrase, clause, relative clause*) and processes (*negation, modification*). Of course, the most important part of grammar is knowing how to use it, not knowing special terms. However, if you know some terminology you will have an easier time understanding the rules that can help you speak and write more accurately. And when you have a question about grammar, knowing some terminology may help you find the answer.

The word cloud below shows the most frequently used words in the glossary at the end of this book. Which grammar terms do you recognize? (There are ordinary words from examples as well.) What do they refer to? As you encounter terms in this book, consult the glossary for help.



## 1.5 How can you use Grammar Advantage effectively?

Understanding key features will help you get the most out of this book. Skim the table of contents. Notice the titles of the major parts, including the appendices at the end. Notice how the book is organized and try to identify key features. The questions that follow will call your attention to some of those features.

The answers are on the right — but try to answer each question without looking at the answer!

- Look at Ch. 2, on sentence structure. What section is about linking verbs, and how many subdivisions are in that section? Section 2.8 is about linking verbs, and it includes three subsections (2.8.1, 2.8.2, and 2.8.3). Sections of the book often have subsections, and some subsections are further subdivided. It's helpful to be aware of how the parts relate to each other.

2. Here is a line of explanation from 2.8.2: After a verb at the end of a clause, we sometimes use an adjective (a), an adjective phrase (b), or a participial phrase (c, d), even if the verb is not usually used as a linking verb. What do the letters in parentheses refer to? The letters refer to the examples in the box below the explanation. An adjective, *young*, appears in (a). An adjective phrase, *ready to win*, appears in (b). A participial phrase, *satisfied with our efforts*, appears in (c), and another participial phrase, *wearing a gorilla suit*, appears in (d).
3. Look at Ch. 3, on transition expressions. What is the title of section 3.1? The title is “Transition expressions in context.” Most of the chapters begin with a section like this, followed by a brief exercise intended to introduce the topic and remind you of what you may already know about it.
4. Look at Ch. 4, on tenses, and find section 4.26. What two words appear above the title of that section? *Usage guide*. In most chapters, the final sections are labeled *usage guide*. Usually these parts present information about how we use particular structures in writing. Sometimes they just present finer points about grammar. Sometimes they are about points of style or vocabulary.
5. Look at Ch. 5, on active and passive voice. What do you find in the very last section? *Problems with active and passive voice*. Each chapter ends with a section like this, based on errors students often make.
6. In Ch. 6, on gerunds and infinitives, find section 6.6. What do you see after each boldface verb in the box? After each boldface verb, there is a gerund (e.g. *winning*) or a gerund phrase (e.g. *registering early*) to remind you that the verbs in this box are gerund-taking verbs. Especially in Ch. 6 and 7, you will find boxes like these. Usually they are lists of verbs that are followed by particular structures.
7. In Ch.7, on noun clauses and reporting, find Ex. 20. What are you supposed to add in Ex. 20? You are supposed to add punctuation — that is, periods, commas, quotation marks, and so on, along with words in the blanks. The sentences come directly from the preceding section, 6.9, so this type of exercise may seem easy. However, it can be a useful way of testing yourself. It’s also a good reminder that punctuation is important.
8. In Ch. 8, on relative clauses, find Ex. 25. There are eight sentences in this exercise. How many of them include a mistake? Only two or three include a mistake, so when you do this exercise, you are mostly reading correct sentences. That may seem odd. Why doesn’t every sentence include a mistake, so that you get more practice? In fact, reading correct examples attentively is an important kind of practice. To remember correct patterns, it’s helpful to see lots of examples.
9. In Ch. 9, on adverbial clauses, find Ex. 19. In item 1, which answer looks best to you? How about in item 2? Option (c) is the only correct answer for item 1. For item 2, the first three options are all possible. (That does not mean they are exactly the same, but they are all possible.) It’s important to notice that in some multiple-choice exercises, more than one option is correct. Read all instructions carefully.
10. Look at Ch. 10, on conditionals. What kind of sentence do you see in the cartoon that begins the chapter? It’s one kind of conditional sentence — that is, a sentence consisting of an *if* clause and a main clause. The illustrations that begin each chapter were developed as a connection to the topic of the chapter.

**KEY**

Ch. 6 = Chapter 6  
 Ex. 23 = Exercise 23  
 5.2 = Chapter 5, section 2  
 2.14.3 = Chapter 2,  
 section 14,  
 subsection 3  
 (a) = an example

**ANSWER KEY**

For answers to exercises, go to [grammaradvantage.com](http://grammaradvantage.com).

# Grammar Advantage

A course text  
and self-study  
tool for  
advanced  
learners of  
English for  
academic  
purposes

- Thorough coverage of key topics
- Clear examples and explanations
- Lexical grammar as well as regular rules
- Basics, fine points, and usage notes
- Abundant and varied exercises
- Sections on errors to avoid
- Bite-sized, easily referenced subsections

Eric S. Nelson  
George Yule

[grammaradvantage.com](http://grammaradvantage.com)

## Chapter 2

# Sentence Structure



**IN THIS CHAPTER**  
Sentence parts and their arrangement

word forms

completing the meaning of a verb

avoiding fragments, comma splices, and run-ons

# Chapter 2 Sentence Structure

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**KEY**  
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## 2.1 What is sentence structure?

In this text, sentence structure includes:

- Parts of sentences and their arrangement
- Word forms (*cup, cups; succeed, succeeds, succeeded, succeeding*) and parts of speech (*succeed, success, successful, successfully*)
- Types of sentences, including questions
- Ways of joining sentences and sentence parts
- Relationships between parts: concepts like transitivity, reference, and agreement

This chapter uses grammar terms such as *subject, verb, noun, and clause*. Some terms are defined, but you may need to refer to the glossary at the end of the book.

## HIGH PRIORITY

■ **Exercise 1** Read the passage. Based on what you already know, underline the verbs (like *imagine* and *are*) or verb phrases (like *are participating* and *is going to leave*). (If you prefer, read 2.2 first.)

## The Marshmallow Experiment

Imagine that you are seven years old. You are participating in an experiment. A researcher greets you and shows you into a small room. In the room there is a marshmallow. The marshmallow is for you, but here is the interesting part: The researcher tells you that she is going to leave you alone in the room for a while. You can eat the marshmallow right away, or you can wait until she gets back. If you wait until she gets back, you will get a second marshmallow. What do you do? Do you eat the marshmallow right away?

An experiment like this, known informally as the marshmallow experiment, was conducted decades ago at Stanford University. It turned out that some children ate the marshmallow right away, while others were able to wait. In other words, some sought instant gratification, and some delayed it. Years later, the researchers followed up on the participants. They found that the children who delayed gratification were in general more successful than those who ate the marshmallow right away. By a variety of measures, including SAT scores, they seemed more competent. The experiment seemed to provide evidence that the ability to delay gratification may predict a child's success.

Over the years, the marshmallow experiment ranked among the most famous examples of research in the social sciences, a common topic in psychology textbooks.

As it turns out, however, the marshmallow experiment was flawed. A more recent study, similar in design, had a much larger sample of children and looked at many other factors that might influence success. One magazine report concluded:

Ultimately the new study finds limited support for the idea that being able to delay gratification leads to better outcomes. Instead, it suggests that the capacity to hold out for a second marshmallow is shaped in large part by a child's social and economic background — and in turn, that background, not the ability to delay gratification, is what's behind kids' long-term success. — The Atlantic, June 2018

Still, the conclusion of the original experiment — that being able to delay gratification is linked to later success in life — remains fixed in the public mind. Even when research is supplanted by later research, it takes a while for the public to catch up.

## 2.2 Subjects and verbs

- Verbs name actions (*participate, work*), states (*believe, want*), and relationships (*correlate, own*).
- Usually a verb has a subject before it. In (a)-(f) the subjects are underlined.
- The subject names the person or thing that does (sometimes experiences) the action.
- The subject may be a noun (*children*), a noun phrase or noun clause (*an experiment like this, what I want*) or a subject pronoun (*you, it, they*).
- Gerunds (d) and infinitives (Ch. 6) can also be subjects.
- We use the term **clause** for a combination of subject + verb and accompanying words. Many sentences include more than one clause (e, f). Each clause has a subject and verb.
- You can often identify a subject by asking “Who or what does (causes, experiences) the action?”

a. <u>You</u> are participating in an experiment.	Who is participating? <i>You</i> .
b. <u>The researchers</u> followed up...	Who followed up...? <i>The researchers</i> .
c. <u>Common sense</u> tells us...	What tells us? <i>Common sense</i> .
d. <u>Arguing about this</u> is unproductive.	What is unproductive? <i>Arguing about this</i> .
e. <u>What happened next</u> surprised us.	What surprised us? <i>What happened next</i> .
f. <u>Kids like art because art</u> is fun.	Who likes art? <i>Kids</i> . What is fun? <i>Art</i> .

■ **Exercise 2** Underline the complete subjects in the sentences below, and double-underline the verbs that go with them. Identifying the subject means identifying the main word of the subject and the parts that modify it. (In the first two sentences, the main words are in **boldface**.) When you underline the verb, include both auxiliary verbs and main verbs (as in the first sentence, with *was...used*).

In the 1960s and 70s, the term “generation gap” was often used to refer to the differences between young people in the U.S. and their parents' generation. Many young people felt distant from their parents because of differences in ideas about politics, social issues, and popular culture. Since then, conflicts between generations have diminished in many ways. Child-rearing experts in the late 20th century encouraged parents to be like friends to their children. Thanks to technology, young people and their parents are able to contact each other easily at any time. On any college campus, the students you see texting or talking on cell phones are often communicating with Mom or Dad. Fifty years ago, closeness of this kind was less common. In addition, the youth-centered nature of U.S. life has reduced many generational differences. In many families, parents and their teenaged children dress in similar ways, listen to the same music, and enjoy the same movies and videos on YouTube.

## KEY

(a)-(f) = examples in the box below  
Ch. 6 = Chapter 6

## HIGH PRIORITY

2.2.1 **Avoid the mistake of omitting a subject.** In sentences with more than one clause, remember that each verb needs a subject (except for nonfinite verbs; see Ch. 6). A single subject may go with more than one verb, however, and the subject does not need to be repeated (c).

a. <i>The test was hard <del>because included</del> two essay questions.</i>	→ <i>it included</i> (9.9.)
b. <i>People are always doing things <del>that shouldn't</del> be doing when they're driving, like texting.</i>	→ <i>that they shouldn't...</i> (8.3.)
c. <i>Regular exercise builds strength and prolongs life.</i>	<i>It</i> is not needed before <i>prolongs</i> .

2.2.2 **Avoid the mistake of adding an extra subject.** Even after long and complex subjects, don't add a pronoun (d). This mistake often occurs when the subject is a gerund (e); see 6.4. An appositive (8.15) may follow a subject (f), but do not include a subject pronoun after it.

d. <i>The salaries of top executives at major companies have grown dramatically. (<del>they</del> have)</i>
e. <i>Adapting to a new culture takes time. (<del>Adapting to a new culture it</del> takes time.)</i>
f. <i>Kemal Ataturk, the founder of the modern Turkish state, was born in 1881. (<del>he</del> was born)</i>

2.2.3. **Avoid the mistake of omitting the verb.** One common mistake involves omitting a BE verb (g, h, i). A word like *absent* (*afraid, aware, away, back*) is not a verb (i, j). Put a verb before it.

g. <i>The earthquake that struck Nepal in April of 2015 one of the worst in memory.</i> → <i>was one of...</i>
h. <i>Computer games are exciting. That why so many people play them.</i> → <i>That is why / That's why</i>
i. <i>If you absent on the day of a test, you need to make it up.</i> → <i>If you are absent...</i>
j. <i>When I back to my country, I plan to get a job.</i> → <i>When I go back to / When I am back in</i>

2.2.4 **Avoid mismatches.** The **predicate** of a sentence *is the part that follows the subject.* It usually begins with a verb and may continue with other words that complete the meaning. The subject and the predicate *must make sense together.* Otherwise, you *have a mismatch.* (The predicates in the preceding sentences are in italics.) More generally, the beginning of a sentence must match with the ending.

k. WRONG: <i>Traveling abroad can learn about other cultures.</i>	RIGHT: <i>Traveling abroad can teach you about other cultures.</i> <i>Traveling abroad can introduce you to other cultures.</i>	The subject <i>traveling abroad</i> (a gerund phrase, 6.4) works well with <i>teach you about</i> and <i>introduce you to</i> , but not with <i>learn about</i> .
	<i>Traveling abroad, you can learn about other cultures.</i>	The phrase <i>Traveling abroad</i> introduces the sentence as an adverbial phrase (Ch. 9). The subject <i>you</i> works well with <i>learn</i> .
l. WRONG: <i>Working together is a great idea. Good teamwork can complete a project in a short time.</i>	RIGHT: <i>A good team can complete...</i> <i>With good teamwork, we can complete...</i>	Teamwork cannot "complete" work. A team can. <i>We</i> provides a subject that works well with <i>complete</i> .

■ Exercise 3

A. Identify places where a subject should be added (2.2.1), an extra subject should be omitted (2.2.2), or a verb should be added (2.2.3). Fix one problem in each item (1–8).

1. The best vacations are vacations that take you completely away from your work and other daily concerns, so that don't even think about your responsibilities and problems.
2. In this school, children start studying a foreign language at the age of six, because is much easier to learn a language at that age. Waiting until you are 12 or 13 makes learning a language much harder.
3. I really like talking to strangers. People that I have never met before they have such interesting experiences.
4. Lots of English words are hard to spell. For example, the word *know* it starts with a letter that is not even pronounced.
5. Growing up in a family with lots of brothers and sisters they helped me learn how to get along with others and speak up for myself.
6. Most U.S. states have a senate and a house of representatives, just like the national government. The only exception Nebraska, which has only one legislative body.
7. Are you the kind of person who likes following a routine, or do you prefer a life in which every day different from every other day?
8. Something is wrong with my laptop. I can't print. On the other hand, maybe something wrong with my printer.

B. Examine each predicate in *italics*. Most of the items have a mismatch; that is, the beginning of a sentence does not work well with the end (2.2.4). Identify the sentences with mismatches. Notice that some items have more than one sentence. Be prepared to discuss possible revisions.

9. Knowing a second language *will have lots of job opportunities.*
10. A different language sometimes *requires you to think in different ways.*
11. Better employment opportunities *can get a higher salary.*
12. A second language *can talk to a whole new world of people from other countries.*
13. Full-time students who have part-time jobs *might be difficult.*
14. Children *should learn to develop patience.* A patient person *works more carefully.* Impatience *is more likely to make mistakes.*
15. Writing a research paper *is not easy* and *sometimes need to spend a lot of time at the library.*
16. Minneapolis *gets cold in the winter* and *sometimes have to wear a heavy jacket even in March.*
17. The most challenging class I had in college *was taking my first philosophy course.*
18. After five years, I *quit my job* at IBM and *started my own business.* Running my own company *enjoyed my work much more.*

## 2.2.5 Subject-verb agreement

- In present tenses (and with *was* and *were*), verbs agree in number with subjects. Use plural verbs (*are, were, sit*) with plural subjects (*students, they, my sister and I*). Use singular verbs (*is, was, sits*) with singular subjects (*she, the earth*) and uncountable subjects (*information, homework*).
- To decide whether the verb should be plural or singular, look at the main noun in the subject, not necessarily the noun that is closest to the verb (a, b).
- Some nouns that look plural are not (c). Some nouns that look singular are not (d). *Everything, everyone*, and phrases like *every book* and *every student in the class* are singular (e).

a. WRONG: <i>The lack of jobs cause many young people to leave rural areas.</i>	→ <i>The lack...causes...</i> <i>Lack</i> , the main noun in the subject, is not plural.
b. WRONG: <i>Weaknesses in the economy has led to a loss of population.</i>	→ <i>Weaknesses...have...</i> <i>Weaknesses</i> , the main noun in the subject, is plural.
c. WRONG: <i>The news today are all about a hurricane.</i>	→ <i>The news today is all about...</i> <i>News</i> is not plural. (It is uncountable.)
d. WRONG: <i>The police is often in the news. Most people is honest.</i>	→ <i>The police are...</i> <i>Most people are...</i> <i>Police</i> and <i>people</i> are plural.
e. WRONG: <i>Everyone / Every book / Everything are / were / have...</i>	→ <i>Every...is / was / has...</i> Use a singular verb with subjects like <i>everyone</i> and <i>every book</i> .

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■ **Exercise 4** Correct the errors in subject-verb agreement. Only **three or four** of the sentences have errors. The rest are correct.

1. The cost of textbooks has risen a lot in recent years.
2. People in small towns are often quick to notice when a stranger appears.
3. If you call 911, sometimes the police is there within minutes.
4. The lack of job opportunities in small towns make it necessary for young people to move to cities.
5. The most important news in the newspaper is usually on the first page.
6. Although developments in technology have made it easier for people in rural areas to take advantage of higher education, people in those areas still generally lag behind urban people in education.
7. The average age at which young women get married has risen during the past several decades.
8. In 1969, the average age for young women to get married was 19; now it is closer to 30.
9. These days when an employee return to work after a vacation, he or she often finds an in-box full of hundreds of email messages.
10. Email has made office communication easier, but some employees feel that it has become a burden.

## 2.3 Word forms and parts of speech

**2.3.1 Word forms** Many mistakes involve choosing the wrong word. If you write *They said me to wait*, for example, you have a **word choice** mistake. A teacher may flag the error with WC or WW, for *wrong word*. It should be *They told me to wait*. (7.12)

Other mistakes have the right word but the wrong **form**. If you write *Thank you for tell me*, you have a **word form** mistake (sometimes marked WF). It should be *Thank you for telling me*. (6.5)

An important aspect of sentence structure is choosing the right forms. That applies to subject-verb agreement (2.2.5), verb tenses (Ch. 4), and many other topics. This section does not offer a comprehensive look at word forms (online resources can help), but word forms are relevant throughout the book. Here is some advice on using word forms correctly:

1. When you edit your work, look carefully for parts that mark word forms, especially *-ed*, *-ing*, and *-s*. Are they correct? Are there places where you need to add them?
  2. Become aware of your word form “enemies” — mistakes you often make. Create a list of word form problems and solutions and make an effort to unlearn bad habits.
  3. Learn the main forms of irregular verbs (verbs that don't use *-ed* for past tense): *speak, spoke spoken; fall, fell, fallen; feel, felt, felt; put, put, put*, etc. These forms are sometimes called principle parts. Dictionaries and online sources can help. Look for a list of the most common irregular verbs. A list of all irregular verbs will include some that you don't need.
  4. Use spell-checking — as long as you use it with careful judgment. It will flag potential problems and sometimes offer correct suggestions. For example, the sentences in Exercise 4 in this chapter include two word-form mistakes related to subject-verb agreement. Microsoft Word's spelling and grammar check feature flags one of the two. Microsoft Word almost always has good advice for correcting mistakes like *are participate* (→ *participating*), *may has* (→ *may have*) want to *left* (→ *leave*). Google docs and Word both correctly pick out the problem in *Thank you for tell me*, suggesting *for telling*, the correct way. Sometimes the suggestions are wrong, but often they are helpful.
- **Exercise 5** Find some of your written work — like a paper for a class — and check it with a grammar checker. Look especially at word forms (including subject-verb agreement). Does the program seem to offer useful suggestions? Discuss your results with a friend or a teacher.

**2.3.2 Parts of speech** *Parts of speech* is the traditional term for major categories of words, like nouns (*difference*), verbs (*differ*), adjectives (*different*), adverbs (*differently*), and prepositions (*at, in, of, to, etc.*). Part of learning a word is learning its part-of-speech category. When you learned the word *absent*, for example, you probably learned that it is an adjective and that it also has a noun form. So you can correctly say *I was absent* and *I've had three absences*. (Because *absent* is not a verb, you can't say *When did you absent?*) Some key points about part-of-speech categories appear below.

a. Please make an <b>effort</b> to comply. (N) (Please <del>effort</del> ) b. I want to <b>succeed</b> . (V) (want to <i>succeed</i> ) c. Smoking is not a <b>healthy</b> habit. (Adj) ( <del>health</del> )	Use a dictionary to be sure you don't misuse a word because you have a mistaken idea about whether it is a noun, a verb, or an adjective.
d. What's your <b>answer to question 3</b> ? (N) e. Please <b>answer</b> the question. (V)	Sometimes the same word is used for more than one category. Notice that the noun <i>answer</i> but not the verb <i>answer</i> is followed by a preposition. See 2.5.
f. Keep your <b>focus</b> on the future. (N) g. You should <b>focus</b> on the future. (V)	Sometimes the same word is used for more than one category, and both are followed by a preposition. See 2.4.4.
h. What's your <b>analysis</b> ? (N) i. How do you <b>analyze</b> the situation? (V) j. You need to be more <b>analytical</b> . (Adj) k. Try to think <b>analytically</b> . (Adv)	Often different words are needed. The end ( <i>sis, ize/lyze, al, ally, etc.</i> ) may give clues to what kind of word it is. Online sources have lists of these suffixes and words with them.
l. You need to support your <b>argument</b> . (N) m. You need to <b>argue</b> effectively. (V) n. It's an <b>argumentative</b> essay. (Adj) o. That's an <b>arguable</b> point. (Adj) p. Read the chapter about <b>argumentation</b> . (N)	The same part (like <i>argu</i> , called a root) can appear in more than one verb, noun, or adjective. To understand the differences, you need to consult a dictionary.
q. What are the <b>effects</b> of this drug? (N) r. It <b>affects</b> appetite by suppressing it. (V) s. It's an <b>effective</b> drug. (Adj) t. The <b>effect</b> of an earthquake is widespread. u. (N) v. Earthquakes <b>affect</b> everything for miles. (V) Earthquakes are <b>powerful</b> . ( <i>effective</i> ) (Adj)	Even if you recognize a word's root (like <i>effect</i> ), it may be necessary to consult a dictionary to understand related words. Though the adjective <i>effective</i> can describe a drug, it can't describe an earthquake, because <i>effective</i> is used for good things.

**2.3.3 Avoiding word form mistakes** To avoid word form problems, remember four things. First, word form choices may depend on what category of word (what part of speech) is needed (a-d). Second, they may depend on the similarity of parts that are joined (e-i). Third, they may depend on an element earlier in the sentence which determines the form(s) that must follow (j-r). Finally, think about the meaning (s, t).

<b>Choose the right category</b> of word (part of speech).	
a. What is the <b>difference</b> between weather and climate?	A noun is required: <i>difference</i>
b. How do weather and climate <b>differ</b> ?	A verb is required: <i>differ</i> .
c. How is weather <b>different</b> from climate?	An adjective is required: <i>different</i> .
d. The words are used <b>differently</b> .	An adverb is required: <i>differently</i> . (2.20)
<b>Make joined parts similar.</b>	
e. <i>This library is open to everyone, it doesn't cost anything, and it has convenient hours.</i>	The elements are independent clauses.
f. <i>This phone is faster but more expensive.</i>	The elements are comparative.
g. <i>She has an M.B.A. and speaks Arabic.</i>	The elements are predicates.
h. <i>Exercising, eating well, and getting enough sleep are the keys to physical health.</i>	The elements are gerund phrases. (Ch. 6).
i. <i>He loves to sleep late and have breakfast in bed.</i>	The phrases are infinitives ( <i>to</i> does not have to be repeated).
Pay attention to how <b>earlier words</b> (underlined) <b>determine forms of later words</b> (in boldface).	
j. <i>How does this drug <u>work</u>?</i>	Only a base form can follow DO, a modal auxiliary (4.4), the infinitive marker <i>to</i> (Ch. 6), and sequences like <i>made them</i> and <i>let me</i> (6.12).
k. <i>This drug might <u>work</u>.</i>	
l. <i>They made me <u>work</u> overtime.</i>	
m. <i>They let me <u>work</u> at my own pace.</i>	Only a past participle can follow the auxiliary HAVE (4.12) or the passive auxiliary BE (Ch. 5).
n. <i>She has <u>published</u> five papers.</i>	
o. <i>She has <u>written</u> two books of poetry.</i>	
p. <i>Most popular books <u>are written</u> in a simple style.</i>	Only an <i>-ing</i> form can follow BE as in a continuous verb phrase (4.7).
q. <i>The company is <u>publishing</u> two new books next week.</i>	
r. <i>...in addition to <u>reading</u>... get used to <u>reading</u>... ...after <u>reading</u>... ...by <u>reading</u>... ...for <u>reading</u>...</i>	After a preposition (including the preposition <i>to</i> ), a verb must be transformed into a gerund (6.5).
<b>Think of the meaning.</b>	
s. <i>He told me to sit down and <u>explain</u> what I wanted.</i>	He told me to explain.
t. <i>He told me to sit down and <u>explained</u> what he wanted.</i>	He explained.



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■ **Exercise 6** Using the hints before the sentence, complete each sentence with an appropriate form of the word. To check your work, look at the box in 2.3.3. (The sentences are the same.)

1. ans....	Please _____ the question. What's your _____ to question 3?
2. foc...	Keep your _____ on the future. You should _____ on the future.
3. analy...	What's your _____? How do you _____ the situation? You need to be more _____. Try to think _____.
4. arg...	You need to support your _____. You need to _____ effectively. It's an _____ essay. That's an _____ point. Read the chapter about _____.
5. -ffect	What are the _____ of this drug? It _____ appetite by suppressing it. It's very _____.

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■ **Exercise 7** Complete the sentences with the words provided. In each numbered item, use one pair of words. Think carefully about which word goes in which blank. The first word in each pair is a noun. The other word is an adjective or a verb.

accuracy, accurate    emphasis, emphasize    response, respond    success, succeed  
bias, biased    evaluation, evaluate    summary, summarize    validity, valid

- In a paragraph, you can \_\_\_ your main point by putting it in a topic sentence at the beginning. Sometimes a concluding sentence adds \_\_\_.
- Most students want grades that show they have learned a lot. In other words, they aim for academic \_\_\_. In order to \_\_\_ academically, you need to be a critical reader.
- Critical readers try to judge a writer's work as they read it. In other words, they \_\_\_ it. Their \_\_\_ depends partly on their expectations.
- Students are often asked to write a short \_\_\_ of something they have read. When you \_\_\_ something, you rewrite it in a short way, eliminating details.
- A summary has to correctly represent the material that it summarizes. In other words, it must be \_\_\_. \_\_\_ is a fundamental requirement of summarizing.
- Most writing teachers ask students to do more than just summarize. They want students to share their own thinking after they read something – in other words, to \_\_\_ to it. A common assignment asks students to write a summary and a \_\_\_.
- Argumentation is the art of persuading readers that you have a \_\_\_ point. The \_\_\_ of your argument depends on factors like how carefully you have assessed causes and effects.
- Writers are supposed to be fair, avoiding \_\_\_. If you think a writer is not presenting facts fairly, you might say the writer is \_\_\_.

## 2.4 Completing the meaning of a verb: Object or prepositional phrase?

## 2.4.1 Verbs with objects

- We can complete the meaning of a verb in different ways.
- Transitive** verbs allow an **object**. An object is a noun (*children*), a noun phrase (*the marshmallow on the table*), a noun clause (*what I want*), or an object pronoun (*you, me, him, her, it, us, them*) that **directly follows** the verb and completes its meaning.
- You can often identify an object by asking a question like "Who or what does [the subject] [verb]?"
- We can also complete the meaning of a verb by adding a prepositional phrase (a preposition plus a noun or noun phrase; 2.4.4) Though these phrases complete the meaning of a verb, they are not considered objects.
- In certain structures, especially questions and relative clauses, the object of a verb appears at the beginning instead of immediately after the verb (e, f).
- We do not normally put any words between a verb and its object (g), except when the object is long and/or complex.

a. <i>You will get <b>a tasty marshmallow</b>.</i>	What will you get? <i>A tasty marshmallow.</i>
b. <i>The researchers interviewed <b>us</b>.</i>	Who did they interview? <i>Us.</i>
c. <i>The experiment provides <b>evidence that self-control is important</b>.</i>	What does the experiment provide? <i>Evidence that self-control is important.</i>
d. <i>This photo shows <b>how I used to look</b>.</i>	What does it show? <i>How I used to look.</i>
e. <i><b>What</b> does this photo show?</i>	<i>What</i> , at the beginning of the question, is the object of <i>show</i> . See 2.14.2
f. <i>The photo <b>that I took</b> won a prize.</i>	<i>That</i> (= <i>the photo</i> ), at the beginning of the underlined relative clause, is the object of <i>took</i> . See 8.4.
g. <i>I understand <del>very well</del> French.</i>	The object should be at the end: <i>I understand French very well</i> . See also 2.20 (p) and (q).
h. <i>I understand very well most of the French on menus and airport signs.</i>	When it is long, the object may come between the verb and its object.

■ **Exercise 8** Which underlined verbs have an object? Underline the objects. Remember that in a phrase like *It happened to me*, there is no object; *to me* is a prepositional phrase.

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Art was always important to Sarah Palmer, and so was nature. Wild animals fascinated her. Hats, too: she never went out without a hat. So when Sara died at the age of 101 in 2015, the residents of the small town where she lived honored her in a suitable way. They commissioned a statue by Evo Ard, a local sculptor. He finished the statue in 2016 and it now stands in the town square. At first glance, it appears to be a woman wearing a dress and a hat. When you look more closely, you see that in fact it is a chimpanzee, and the hat is just like one that Sarah often wore. People remember Sarah for her sense of humor, so the statue would no doubt appeal to her. The old men who use the square every day as their own private front yard appreciate it too. As one remarked, "It's the best thing that ever happened to this town!"

**2.4.2 Necessary objects** Some verbs, such as *eat*, *practice*, and *read*, may have implied objects. In other words, the object may not be mentioned, but the listener or reader can imagine it.

- a. *We usually **eat** around 1:00 p.m. After that I **read** for a while.* (We eat lunch. I read a book.)

However, if an actual object has been mentioned earlier, an implied object is usually not enough. In such a context, an actual object — often a pronoun — is generally necessary. Some verbs, like *enjoy*, *find*, *like*, and *put*, almost always require an object.

- b. *- Where's that last cookie? - I'm sorry. I ate it.* (~~I ate.~~)
- c. *Squirrels are common in the city. You can find them everywhere.* (~~You can find everywhere.~~)
- d. *We took a vacation, but we didn't enjoy it / enjoy ourselves.* (~~We didn't enjoy.~~)

To know whether an object is required, you need to know about the individual verb (lexical grammar). With some verbs, like *finish* and *understand*, objects are often optional (i, j), but if you don't omit pronoun objects, you will usually be correct.

- e. *Writing this paper was easy. I finished in a day. / I finished it in a day.*
- f. *Would you repeat the question? I didn't understand. / I didn't understand it.*

**Lexical grammar: the grammar of an individual word**

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■ **Exercise 9** Add an object pronoun after each verb that needs one. In each item look for just one place where an object is needed. If you are in doubt about a verb, assume that it requires an object. (For object pronouns, see 2.16.2)

1. *- There was an interesting article on animal rights in today's paper. Did you read it? - I noticed, but I wasn't planning to read it till later.*
2. *Public telephones used to be a common feature of the urban landscape, but today you can hardly find anywhere.*
3. *Chili is a kind of stew that is famous in lots of places, but people have different ideas about how to make. Usually it includes beef, onions, tomatoes, chili peppers, and beans, but in Texas they make it without beans.*
4. *Be sure to proofread your paper before you submit. If there are obvious mistakes, you can find at least some of them. Showing your paper to a friend is also a good idea.*
5. *If you miss a test for a good reason — such as an illness or an emergency — most teachers will let you take at a later date.*
6. *If you want to benefit from reading for pleasure, it's important to choose books that are appropriate for your level. If you choose a book that's too hard for you, you won't enjoy.*
7. *Relationships with neighbors are a key factor in making a neighborhood a good place to live. Your next-door neighbors can make your life more secure by keeping an eye on your house when you're not there. If you don't already know, I suggest that you make friends with them as soon as you can.*
8. *In the animal world, one common form of self-defense is camouflage. An insect, for example, might change its color to match its background so that its enemies can't easily see.*

**2.4.3 Verbs without objects** Intransitive verbs may be complete all by themselves, with nothing after the verb (a) except optional adverbial elements (b, c). Intransitive verbs may also be completed by a prepositional phrase (d, e, f).

a. <i>Nothing <b>happened</b>.</i>	Many intransitive verbs are complete by themselves, though adverbial elements, like phrases of time and place, may follow them.
b. <i>Mt. Vesuvius <b>erupted</b> in 1944.</i>	
c. <i>Memories <b>fade</b> (over the years).</i>	
d. <i>Everyone <b>participates</b> (in class).</i>	Many intransitive verbs can or must be completed by a prepositional phrase.
e. <i>Water <b>consists of</b> hydrogen and oxygen.</i>	
f. <i>Success <b>depends on</b> many factors.</i>	

**2.4.4 Common intransitive verbs with typical prepositional phrases**

If you sometimes forget the preposition after a verb, this list may help you. Some of these verbs work with other prepositions as well, and some have transitive uses (that is, with no preposition). For example, we can *adapt a recipe* and *register a complaint*. Consult a dictionary.

<b>adapt to</b> a new culture	<b>cope with</b> challenges	<b>participate in</b> class
<b>adjust to</b> living alone	<b>deal with</b> a problem	<b>register for</b> a class
<b>agree with</b> someone / an idea	<b>depend on</b> your friends	<b>reply to</b> your request
<b>agree to/on</b> a plan	<b>enroll in</b> a class	<b>respond to</b> a message
<b>apply to</b> a university	<b>focus on</b> the future	<b>search for</b> evidence
<b>apply for</b> admission	<b>go to</b> the dentist	<b>stay at</b> your desk
<b>arrive at</b> a conclusion	<b>insist on</b> privacy	<b>stay in</b> your room
<b>arrive in</b> the U.S.	<b>laugh at</b> a joke	<b>talk about</b> sports
<b>belong to</b> a club	<b>live in</b> an apartment	<b>talk to/with</b> your advisor
<b>care about</b> nutrition	<b>listen to</b> music	<b>think about</b> the future
<b>care for</b> sick patients	<b>look at</b> your phone	<b>think of</b> a solution
<b>come to</b> class	<b>look for</b> a job	<b>travel in/to</b> outer space
<b>complain about</b> the weather	<b>major in</b> economics	<b>wait for</b> a bus
<b>consist of</b> two parts	<b>object to</b> corporal punishment	<b>work on</b> a project

• These verbs, if they have noun forms, generally require the same preposition for the noun and the verb: *apply to a university*, *submit an application to a university*, etc.

With verbs like these, the preposition is necessary even when the object of the preposition is earlier in the sentence, as it sometimes is in questions (a) and relative clauses (b; see Ch. 8).

a. <i><b>What kind of music</b> do you listen to?</i>	<i>To</i> is required even though its object, <i>What kind of music</i> , appears at the beginning.
b. <i>A taboo topic is a topic <u>that people don't like to talk about</u>.</i>	<i>About</i> is required even though its object — <i>that</i> in the underlined relative clause) is earlier in the sentence. (See also 8.5.)

**belong to**

**listen to**

**participate in**

■ **Exercise 10** Test yourself by adding a preposition. Check your work by looking at 2.4.4.

depend _____ your friends	stay _____ your desk	register _____ a class
talk _____ your advisor	enroll _____ a class	stay _____ your room
adapt _____ a new culture	respond _____ a message	agree _____ someone / an idea
apply _____ a university	talk _____ sports	listen _____ music
apply _____ job	complain _____ the weather	travel _____ outer space
wait _____ a bus	object _____ corporal punishment	adjust _____ a new culture
arrive _____ the U.S.	agree _____ a plan	care _____ nutrition
care _____ sick patients	laugh _____ a joke	look _____ your phone
work _____ a project	look _____ a job	go _____ the dentist
consist _____ two parts	participate _____ class	belong _____ a club
live _____ an apartment	think _____ the future	stay _____ your room
search _____ evidence	deal _____ a problem	

■ **Exercise 11** The verbs on the right can fill the blanks – but which ones require a preposition? Using 2.4.4 – and maybe a dictionary – decide where and which prepositions are needed. If a verb does not appear in 2.4.4, assume that in the context below it does not require a preposition.

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- One difficult thing about \_\_\_ a new culture is learning the rules of politeness. For example, how should you \_\_\_ a stranger politely? And if you're \_\_\_ your neighbors and you want to \_\_\_ their noisy music, how can you do it politely?  
adapting, address, talking, complain
- After you \_\_\_ information online, you may find that your paper still \_\_\_ some evidence that you really need. It may be a good idea to \_\_\_ the library and \_\_\_ an expert for help.  
search, lacks, go, ask
- We need to \_\_\_ your social life! Instead of \_\_\_ your room all weekend, why don't you \_\_\_ a friend? Even if you can't \_\_\_ anything to do, maybe your friend can.  
talk, staying, call, think
- Should children \_\_\_ family decision-making? Many American parents \_\_\_ their children in family decisions. Of course, it \_\_\_ the topic and the age of the child. No parent would \_\_\_ a two-year-old for her opinion about how to spend money.  
participate, include, depends, ask
- In high school, my goal was to \_\_\_ Carleton College. To do that, I had to \_\_\_ a scholarship and write an essay about activities that I was \_\_\_ and clubs that I \_\_\_.  
attend, apply, participating, belonged
- Yesterday's class \_\_\_ two parts. First we \_\_\_ an article about gender differences and then we \_\_\_ it. Some of the students were skeptical. They didn't \_\_\_ the author's claim that men and women \_\_\_ different things.  
consisted, read, discussed, agree, laugh
- Mobile phones have changed how people \_\_\_ punctuality. Why should you \_\_\_ being on time for an appointment if you know you can always \_\_\_ the person you are meeting and \_\_\_ them that you're going to be late?  
think, worry, text, tell
- People who \_\_\_ places like Alaska or Norway in the winter have to \_\_\_ an environment in which there is very little daylight. If you \_\_\_ Oslo in December, for example, you will \_\_\_ only about six hours of daylight.  
visit, adjust, travel, experience
- Last semester I \_\_\_ courses in art and music even though I'm \_\_\_ mechanical engineering. Soon I'll be \_\_\_ a job, and I've heard that employers often \_\_\_ employees who have varied interests.  
registered, majoring, looking, value
- If you \_\_\_ students at an American university just before class, what do you see? Usually, some students are \_\_\_ music, and some are reading or \_\_\_ a text message. Some might be \_\_\_ an assignment that is due in one minute.  
observe, listening, responding, working
- How long should you \_\_\_ a professor who doesn't \_\_\_ class on time? If you \_\_\_ professors and students this question, they might \_\_\_ you different answers.  
wait, come, ask, give
- It has been one year since Marie and Franco \_\_\_ New York, and they've decided that the apartment they're \_\_\_ is too expensive. They've got to \_\_\_ a plan to economize. Maybe one of them can \_\_\_ another job.  
arrived, live, agree, look
- When they are preparing for an exam, some students \_\_\_ silence. Noise \_\_\_ them. Others don't \_\_\_ noise and may even prefer to \_\_\_ music.  
insist, distracts, care, listen
- If you \_\_\_ paying the service fee, you can \_\_\_ the manager. She always \_\_\_ complaints and does her best to \_\_\_ the customer.  
object, talk, listens, satisfy

## 2.4.5 Sometimes transitive, sometimes intransitive

Many verbs may have an object or not, depending on the meaning. The examples below, along with a dictionary, can help you understand the differences.

Transitive verbs (with objects)	Intransitive verbs + prepositions and objects
a. <i>Do you <b>know</b> a good joke?</i> (Can you tell one?)	b. <i>I would have taken that class, but I didn't <b>know about</b> it.</i> (I didn't realize I could take it.)
c. <i>How long does it take <b>to learn</b> a language?</i> (When you learn something, it becomes yours.)	d. <i>It's interesting <b>to learn about</b> other religions.</i> (When you learn <b>about</b> something, you just learn facts about it.)
e. <i>I <b>pay</b> my bills every month.</i> (We pay bills, fees, tuition, etc.)	f. <i>My parents <b>paid for</b> my education.</i> ( <del>paid my...</del> ) (We pay <b>for</b> goods and services.)
g. <i>The children were <b>playing</b> soccer.</i> (We play games, musical instruments, roles, etc.)	h. <i>They were <b>playing with</b> their phones.</i> (We play <b>with</b> something to amuse ourselves.)
i. <i>The teacher is <b>preparing</b> a test.</i> (She is making it.)	j. <i>The students are <b>preparing for</b> a test.</i> ( <del>preparing a test</del> ) (They are studying.)
k. <i>We <b>read</b> five articles.</i>	l. <i>We <b>read about</b> twins.</i> (The topic was twins.)
m. <i>The police <b>searched</b> the house.</i> (We search a place.)	n. <i>They <b>searched for</b> evidence.</i> (We search <b>for</b> the thing we hope to find.)
o. <i>Laura is <b>studying</b> physics.</i> (That's her major.)	p. <i>She's <b>studying for</b> a degree in physics.</i> ( <del>studying a degree</del> ) That's her goal. She's <b>studying at</b> a university. ( <del>studying a university</del> )
q. <i>Have you ever <b>told a joke</b> that no one laughed at?</i>	r. <i>In application essays, you usually have to <b>tell about</b> your goals.</i>
s. <i>The students <b>wrote</b> essays.</i>	t. <i>They <b>wrote about</b> different topics.</i>

■ **Exercise 12** Add a preposition if one is needed or add Ø if no preposition is needed. Omit prepositions that are not needed. In **two or three** sentences, no change is needed.

- Most students spend a lot of time preparing \_\_\_\_\_ exams.
- Did you pay \_\_\_\_\_ your college education by yourself, or did your parents help you?
- Ben is studying \_\_\_\_\_ business because he considers it a practical choice. If he had chosen what he really loved, he would be studying \_\_\_\_\_ a degree in music.
- When teachers prepare \_\_\_\_\_ tests, they have to think carefully \_\_\_\_\_ what they have taught.
- My brother is studying \_\_\_\_\_ an MBA at the Wharton school in Pennsylvania.
- If you pay \_\_\_\_\_ the student services fee, you have the right to use the Recreation Center.
- Last weekend, my roommate and I both had to write \_\_\_\_\_ argumentative essays.
- We wrote \_\_\_\_\_ the same topic, but our papers were very different.
- Young children are able to learn \_\_\_\_\_ languages without studying them.
- What are the benefits of learning \_\_\_\_\_ other religions?

## 2.5 Prepositions after nouns but not verbs

With many nouns — *contact* and *access*, for example — it is important to remember a preposition: *contact with*, *access to*. However, you need a preposition only when these words are used as nouns, not when they are used as verbs. As verbs, they are transitive. Below are typical phrases with verbs and related nouns or adjectives. (Sometimes the forms are different.) Notice that the verbs have no prepositions after them. In a dictionary, you can find additional patterns for the words.

Verbs + objects (no prepositions)	Nouns or adjectives + prepositional phrases
<b>access</b> the internet	have <b>access to</b> the internet
<b>admire</b> a film	express <b>admiration for</b> a film
<b>advise</b> the president (Note the spelling.)	give <b>advice to</b> the president (Note the spelling.)
<b>affect</b> my grade (Note the spelling.)	have an <b>effect on</b> my grade (Note the spelling.)
<b>answer</b> the question	give an <b>answer to</b> the question
<b>benefit</b> society	provide a <b>benefit to</b> society
<b>call</b> someone on the phone	make a <b>call to</b> someone
<b>compare</b> Coke with/and Pepsi	make a <b>comparison between</b> Coke and Pepsi
<b>contact</b> an old friend	make <b>contact with</b> an old friend
<b>damage</b> property	do <b>damage to</b> property
<b>discuss</b> politics	have a <b>discussion about</b> politics
<b>emphasize</b> education	place an <b>emphasis on</b> education
<b>equal</b> 10 percent	be <b>equal to</b> 10 percent ( <i>Equal is an adjective.</i> )
<b>harm</b> children	be <b>harmful to</b> children ( <i>Harmful is an adjective.</i> )
<b>influence</b> people	have an <b>influence on</b> people
<b>lack</b> confidence	suffer <b>from a lack of</b> confidence
<b>marry</b> a doctor	be <b>married to</b> a doctor ( <i>Married is an adjective.</i> )
<b>research</b> the history of fashion	do <b>research on</b> the history of fashion
<b>respect</b> tradition	show <b>respect for</b> tradition
<b>respect</b> elders	be <b>respectful to</b> elders ( <i>Respectful is an adjective.</i> )
<b>value</b> privacy	place a <b>high value on</b> privacy
<b>visit</b> a friend	make a <b>visit to</b> a friend
<b>welcome</b> visitors	extend a <b>welcome to</b> visitors

**Contact or contact with?**

**Answer or answer to?**

- **Exercise 13** Test yourself by adding a preposition if one is needed. Write X in the blank if no preposition is needed. Check your answers by looking at 2.5.

emphasize _____ education	call _____ someone on the phone
place an emphasis _____ education	make a call _____ someone
contact _____ an old friend	discuss _____ politics
make contact _____ an old friend	have a discussion _____ politics
access _____ the internet	affect _____ my grade
have access _____ the internet	have an effect _____ my grade
value _____ privacy	research _____ the history of fashion
place a high value _____ privacy	do research _____ the history of fashion
benefit _____ society	respect _____ tradition
provide a _____ society	show respect _____ tradition
answer _____ the question	compare Coke _____ Pepsi
give an answer _____ the question	make a comparison _____ Coke and Pepsi
advise _____ the president	admire _____ a film
give advice _____ the president	express admiration _____ a film
influence _____ people	
have an influence _____ people	

- **Exercise 14** In each item below, you need a verb in one blank and a noun in the other. Sometimes the verb and noun are the same; for example, *contact* is both a verb and a noun. Sometimes they are different; for example, *emphasize* (a verb) and *emphasis* (a noun) are different. Choose words for each blank, and remember that after a noun you may need a preposition, as in the example. The verbs do not require prepositions, since they are all transitive. Use 2.5 as a resource.

**Example:** *affect* In the last century, scientists studied the effect of cigarette smoking and determined that it affects the body in very negative ways.

- access* In rural parts of the country, people often have less \_\_\_ information. Libraries and educational facilities are limited, and people may need to travel far from home just to \_\_\_ the internet.
- emphasize* In countries where English is not the native language, teachers often \_\_\_ grammar more than anything else. In English-speaking countries, there is usually more \_\_\_ listening and speaking.
- compare* It's hard to \_\_\_ two teaching methods because teaching involves so many variables. To be useful, you need to eliminate variables when you make a \_\_\_ two things.
- contact* Since I started my new job, I haven't had much \_\_\_ my old work friends. We weren't really close, so I have no reason to \_\_\_ them.
- respect* It's important for soldiers to \_\_\_ their leaders. If soldiers have a healthy \_\_\_ their leaders, they are more likely to follow them.
- harm* Parents try to protect their children from things that may \_\_\_ them, but they don't always know what is \_\_\_ a child.
- answer* What's the \_\_\_ question 4? Were you able to \_\_\_ that one?
- affect* The same medication may have a different \_\_\_ different patients. For example, a medication may \_\_\_ a young person differently from an old person.
- lack* If you \_\_\_ confidence, you are less likely to do well. The \_\_\_ confidence can hurt your performance by making you hesitant and indecisive.
- research* Tree rings show the growth of a tree over time. \_\_\_ tree rings can help us understand climate change, because the rings are wider or narrower depending on how much rain occurred during a growing season. Scientists who \_\_\_ tree rings to learn about climate change are called dendrochronologists.
- influence* In many ways, parents obviously \_\_\_ their children a lot. However, a child's peers may have an even greater \_\_\_ the child's language development.
- discuss* In my journalism class, we had a heated \_\_\_ social media and public opinion. The next day, we \_\_\_ voting behavior, and some students fell asleep.

**give me something****give something to me****2.6 Two-object verbs**

**2.6.1 Verbs like give and tell** can have two objects: an **indirect object** and a **direct object**. We use such verbs, sometimes called ditransitive verbs, in two patterns. When the indirect object is a pronoun (2.16), we use only one pattern (e - h). Verbs in this group include *give, lend, offer, read, sell, show, teach, and tell*. Below, S = subject; V = verb; IO = indirect object; DO = direct object.

S V IO DO			S V DO to IO		
Subj. + verb	Indirect object	Direct object		Direct object	Indirect object
a. <i>They gave</i>	<i>the children</i>	<i>cookies.</i>	b. <i>They gave</i>	<i>cookies</i>	<i>to the children.</i>
c. <i>He tells</i>	<i>everyone</i>	<i>that story.</i>	d. <i>He tells</i>	<i>that story</i>	<i>to everyone.</i>
e. <i>We told / gave / showed <del>the children it.</del></i>			f. <i>We told / gave / showed <b>it to the children.</b></i>		
g. <i>We told / gave / showed <del>them it.</del></i>			h. <i>We told / gave / showed <b>it to them.</b></i>		

**2.6.2 Use for,** not *to*, with *buy, find,* and *make*.

S V IO DO			S V DO <b>for</b> IO		
Subj. + verb	Indirect object	Direct object	Subj. + verb	Direct object	Indirect object
i. <i>We bought</i>	<i>Ben</i>	<i>a present.</i>	j. <i>We bought</i>	<i>a present</i>	<i>for Ben.</i>
k. <i>She found</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>a job.</i>	l. <i>She found</i>	<i>a job</i>	<i>for him.</i>
m. <i>I made</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>dinner.</i>	n. <i>I made</i>	<i>dinner</i>	<i>for you.</i>

**2.6.3 Typical patterns for ask** are shown below. For other patterns, see 6.10 and 7.7.3.

o. <i>We asked each candidate two questions.</i>	There is no difference in meaning.
p. <i>We asked two questions of each candidate.</i>	
q. <i>We asked each candidate for comments. We asked each candidate to say a few words.</i>	

**2.6.4 Cost, save, and take** (*take an hour, take a long time,* etc.) often have an indirect object after the verb.

- r. Buying a cheap product may **save (you) money**, but it may also **cost (you) more money** in the long run.
- s. *If I walk, it **takes (me) 20 minutes** to get home. How much time does it **take you** to get home?*

**Exercise 15**

- a. Using the words below, complete the sentences. Include a pronoun: *me, you, her, him, it, us,* or *them*. If you need explanation about how to choose pronouns, see section 2.16.

Example: I have no idea what the answer is. Can you \_\_\_? → *give me a hint*

buy some souvenirs      give some advice      give more time      show your license  
 find a new job      give a dollar      lend a dollar      tell a story  
 give a few weeks      ✓ give a hint      make a pirate costume

- If you can't finish a long test, you might ask the teacher, "Can you \_\_\_?"
  - I can't decide what to major in. Can you \_\_\_?
  - I don't have enough money for the fare. Can you \_\_\_ until tomorrow?
  - Jared will get used to his new job. Just \_\_\_.
  - If the children can't sleep, why don't you \_\_\_?
  - I want my children to learn how to handle money, so I plan to \_\_\_ every week.
  - If those police officers stop you, be sure to \_\_\_.
  - When my family goes on a trip, the children always say, "Mom, will you \_\_\_?"
  - My daughter loves pirates. For Halloween, she asked me to \_\_\_.
  - Don't worry. If you get fired, I can \_\_\_.
- b. Using the words below, complete each sentence. You will need four words. There may be more than one way. In the sentence with *someone*, you can use *them*. If you need explanation about how to choose pronouns, see 2.16.

Example I'm hungry. If you're not going to eat that banana, why not \_\_\_? → *give it to me*

*give lend to me you her him it them us*

- My daughter needs a bike. I have one I never use, so I plan to \_\_\_.
- If the man at the desk asks for your passport, just smile and \_\_\_.
- If someone asks you for your password, don't \_\_\_.
- If your neighbors need a lawnmower and you have an extra one, you could \_\_\_.
- When she asked for your receipt, why didn't you \_\_\_?
- We didn't ask for his opinion, but he decided to \_\_\_ anyway.
- I like this book, and I know you'll love it. As soon as I'm done with it, I'll \_\_\_.
- I need to borrow a dictionary, and I see that you have one. Can you \_\_\_?
- Maria's laptop is being repaired. I don't need my laptop this weekend, so I can \_\_\_.
- Alicia is so generous! If you admire a piece of jewelry she's wearing, she'll take it off and \_\_\_!

## HIGH PRIORITY

■ **Exercise 16** Look for a mistake in **two or three** of the items below. Most of the items have no mistakes. In the sentences below, find verbs that appear in 2.6. Look for a mistake related to the patterns for these verbs in **two or three** of the sentences. Most of the sentences have no mistakes.

1. Today my teacher gave us a copy of an article about elephants. He gave the same article to us last week! Unlike an elephant, he's very forgetful.
2. This is a strange story. If you tell it to four different people, they are likely to interpret it in four different ways. If you ask them to tell it back to you, you will hear four very different versions.
3. If you tell someone something personal, you had better be prepared for what might happen if they tell to someone else.
4. Elementary school teachers often tell their students stories. If the children then tell those same stories for their parents, they might change them in interesting ways.
5. A famous saying goes like this: *If you give a man a fish, he eats for one day. If you teach a man to fish, he eats for a lifetime.* If I had a fish, I'd be glad to give someone. I hate the taste of fish!
6. The Riveras rented a car for their vacation. It cost a lot to them, but driving to Quebec took them less than a day, so it saved them some time.

## 2.7 Avoiding verb completion mistakes

You can avoid many mistakes if you know whether a verb is transitive or intransitive. If it is transitive, use an object directly after it, with no preposition. If it is intransitive, use nothing after it or use a prepositional phrase. Most dictionaries indicate whether a verb is transitive. For the word *consist*, for example, Dictionary.com says “used without object” and “usually used with *of*.” It also provides an example.

a. <i>Zero degrees Celsius equals <del>to</del> 32 Fahrenheit.</i>	Use an <b>object</b> after a transitive verb. Don't use a preposition.
b. <i>How does pop culture influence <del>on</del> fashion?</i>	
c. <i>They listen to music when they study. (<del>listen music</del>)</i>	Don't use an object after an intransitive verb. Use a preposition before the noun or noun phrase.
d. <i>When I watch a horror movie, sometimes I can't look at the screen. (<del>look the screen</del>)</i>	

■ **Exercise 17** Read each item and look for problems in **verb completion** with the verbs *equal*, *influence*, *listen*, *look*, *focus* and *marry* (see section 2.4). In most of the items, there are no mistakes. Look for only **one or two** mistakes in the whole exercise.

1. Experts say that the first year of a dog's life equals about 15 human years, while the second equals about nine years and each year after that equals about five years. So in terms of development, the common idea that a “dog year” is equal to about seven human years is not really accurate.
2. To what extent do your friends' opinions influence your own opinions? It is generally believed that adolescence is when friends' opinions have the greatest influence, but peers' opinions influence younger children as well. Peers have an influence on adults too, even though most adults think of themselves as independent thinkers.
3. When you look at another person's face, exactly what do you look at? According to some studies, people from East Asian cultures look at the center of a face, while people from Westerners look alternately at the eyes and the mouth.
4. The way we listen to music has evolved significantly in the last 50 years. For most of the last century, people listened to music on records. Cassette tapes came later, followed by CDs. Today, when you listen your favorite performers, you are probably listening to a digital file.
5. Many history books focus on the actions of leaders like kings, presidents, and generals. In recent decades, however, more and more historians have focused on the lives of ordinary people. Some popular history books focus on commodities like oil, salt, or silver, while others focus on products of human ingenuity like clothing and houses.
6. Parents usually want their son or daughter to marry someone who has a good future and is compatible with the family. Sometimes parents actually make the choice: In an arranged marriage, a young person marries someone chosen by his or her parents. If you marry to someone whose economic future is not promising, the parents might argue, you will regret it.

## 2.8 Linking verbs

**2.8.1 Linking verbs** can be followed by adjectives (as well as other structures). The most important linking verb is BE. Others appear below, followed by typical structures. These patterns are a matter of lexical grammar — that is, the grammar of the individual word. Sometimes the use of a pattern is limited. For example, we use *turn green* and *turn red* but not usually ~~*turn old*~~. Consult a dictionary.

Linking verbs with typical structures			
If a box is empty, it means that structure is not common after the linking verb, though it may occur.			
+ adjective	+ noun phrase or <i>like</i> + a noun phrase	+ infinitive ( <i>to</i> + verb) or gerund (verb + <i>ing</i> )	+ prepositional phrase
<i>be studious</i>	<i>be a scholar</i>		<i>be at school</i>
<i>appear confident</i>		<i>appear to know</i>	<i>appear in court</i>
<i>become famous</i>	<i>become a star</i>	<i>come to believe</i> ( <del><i>become to</i></del> )	
<i>end up rich</i>	<i>end up a rich man</i>	<i>end up winning</i>	<i>end up on top</i>
<i>feel foolish</i>	<i>feel like a fool</i>	<i>feel like quitting</i>	
<i>get ready</i>		<i>get to see</i> (have the opportunity to see)	
<i>grow old</i>		<i>grow to appreciate it</i>	
<i>keep quiet</i>		<i>keep going</i>	<i>keep in shape</i>
<i>look young</i>	<i>look like an athlete</i>		
<i>prove difficult</i>		<i>prove to be difficult</i>	
<i>remain silent</i>	<i>remain friends</i>		<i>remain at home</i>
<i>seem fair</i>	<i>seem like a good deal</i>	<i>seem to be fair</i>	
<i>smell good</i>	<i>smell like a rose</i>		
<i>sound great</i>	<i>sound like thunder</i>		
<i>taste fresh</i>	<i>taste like chicken</i>		
<i>turn green</i>	<i>turn into a monster</i>		
<i>stay awake</i>			<i>stay in bed</i>

**2.8.2 After a verb or at the end of a clause**, we sometimes add an adjective (a), an adjective phrase (b), or a participial phrase (c, d), even if the verb is not usually used as a linking verb.

a. <i>Mozart died young.</i>	He was young.
b. <i>The team arrived at the field ready to win.</i>	They were ready.
c. <i>We ended the day satisfied with our efforts.</i>	We were satisfied.
d. <i>Justin came to class wearing a gorilla suit.</i>	He was wearing a gorilla suit.

**2.8.3 We use BE like with the meaning “be similar to.”** To express the idea that A is like B and B is like A, we use BE *alike*.

- e. *Have you ever watched a rugby game? It's like football but even rougher. (It ~~likes~~ football.)*  
 f. *Football and rugby are alike.*

## 2.9 Look like, seem like, sound like

The examples show how we use *look* and *look like* differently. We use similar patterns with *seem*, *sound*, *feel*, *taste*, and *smell*. We can also use these verbs with an empty *it* subject (2.11) and a clause (d). To say that A looks like B and B looks like A, we use *look alike* (e).

Patterns for <i>look</i> , <i>seem</i> , <i>sound</i> , <i>feel</i> , <i>taste</i> , and <i>smell</i>	
a. <i>This looks interesting. (like)</i>	<i>look</i> + adjective
b. <i>This looks like an interesting film.</i>	<i>look like</i> + noun phrase
c. <i>This looks like it could be an interesting film.</i>	<i>look like</i> + clause
d. <i>It looks like the person who lives here has a dog.</i>	empty <i>it</i> + <i>look like</i> + clause (2.11)
e. <i>My brother and I look alike. (each other)</i>	I look like him and he looks like me. (We look like each other.)

See also 9.23, “Lexical grammar: Verbs + *like*, as *if*, and as *though*.”

■ **Exercise 18** Choose the best answer(s). More than one may be correct.

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- Henry Fonda was a famous actor. Two of his children \_\_\_ actors as well.  
a. became    b. became like    c. became to be    d. were become
- Our new neighbors \_\_\_. Let's invite them over for coffee.  
a. seem friendly people    b. seem friendly  
c. seem like friendly people    d. seem to friendly
- If you don't start paying more attention to your relationships with other people, you're going to \_\_\_ with no friends at all!  
a. end being    b. end to be    c. end up    d. end it
- Don't let anyone interrupt you. No matter what happens, just \_\_\_ working.  
a. keep to be    b. keep up    c. keep to    d. keep
- In the novel I'm reading, one of the characters \_\_\_ a werewolf when the moon is full.  
a. turns into    b. turns to    c. becomes to be    d. becomes
- The new movie by Ang Lee \_\_\_ an interesting film. Would you like to see it?  
a. looks    b. looks like    c. sounds    d. sounds like
- The new office manager seems \_\_\_.  
a. like a competent person    b. competent  
c. as a competent person    d. being competent
- Do you and your brother \_\_\_?  
a. look like each other    b. look alike each other    c. look alike    d. look like
- Scarlett doesn't look \_\_\_ her mother, but they sound alike.  
a. alike to    b. alike    c. like    d. like to
- I started going to concerts as a child, but I didn't really \_\_\_ appreciate music until I started studying it seriously.  
a. become to    b. come to    c. end up    d. feel like



## call off

## run out of

## 2.10 Phrasal verbs

A **phrasal verb** is a verb + particle (adverb or preposition) like *put down*, *call off*, *go on*, *get along*, or *run out*, sometimes with an added preposition (*get along with*, *run out of*). A phrasal verb usually needs to be learned as a unit because the meaning is often not understandable from the parts.

a. <i>The test is over; put down your pencils.</i>	The meaning comes from <i>put</i> and <i>down</i> .
b. <i>They called off the game.</i> = They canceled it.	The meaning is not understandable from the parts.
c. <i>What's going on?</i> = What's happening?	
d. <i>Do you get along with your boss?</i> = Do you have a friendly relationship?	
e. <i>We've run out of time.</i> = We have no more time.	

Most phrasal verbs are transitive (2.4). That is, they may be followed by an object (a noun, a noun phrase, or a pronoun). They may be **separable** or **inseparable**. With separable verbs, the object may come at the end or between the parts (f, h). If the object is a pronoun, it **must** come between the parts (g, i). With inseparable verbs, the parts are never separated (j – m).

Separable verbs with a noun object	With a pronoun object
f. <i>Put down your pencils.</i> <i>Put your pencils down.</i>	g. <i>Put them down.</i> <i>(Put down them)</i>
h. <i>They called off the game.</i> <i>They called the game off.</i>	i. <i>They called it off.</i> <i>(They called off it.)</i>
Inseparable verbs	
j. <i>The teacher called on Sara.</i> (chose her to answer)	k. <i>The teacher called on her.</i>
l. <i>Jo takes after her father in every way.</i> (is similar to)	m. <i>Jo takes after him in every way.</i>

Phrasal verbs are based on easy words, but these words may be part of many phrasal verbs (*get across*, *get along*, *get away*, *get back*, *get by*, etc.), and a single phrasal verb may have more than one meaning. Most dictionaries list phrasal verbs, often with examples, after the main word.

■ **Exercise 19** Using a dictionary if you need one, identify the phrasal verbs in the sentences below. Which ones have objects? Which ones appear to be separable? How do you know?

HIGH PRIORITY

- If you miss a test, ask your professor if you can make it up.
- Sophie is a fast learner. If you try to teach her something, she catches on immediately.
- Does your teacher usually go over the homework in class after you hand it in?
- Please look over Chapter 1 tonight. If you have questions, bring them up in class tomorrow.
- When Mary Kate introduces herself, she never leaves out her middle name.
- Are you a procrastinator? In other words, when you have something to do, do you put it off?
- We waited almost an hour, but the bus never showed up.
- Sometimes twins look so much alike that you can't tell them apart.
- We have to follow the rule. There's no way to get around it.
- If you can't figure out the meaning of a word from the context, look it up.
- When you take on an important project, it's important to see it through.
- In one of the labs, a fire broke out, and it took the firefighters an hour to put it out.
- On weekends, I like to sleep in, because on weekdays my alarm goes off at 5.
- When he was 90, the founder of the company passed away and his daughter took over.
- When Donald Trump started his run for the presidency, most experts didn't believe he could pull it off.

**It's obvious that people make mistakes.**

**2.11 Empty *it* subjects**

- Some sentences have what we call an **empty *it*** subject.
- *It* occupies the subject position, but in terms of meaning, the subject is later in the sentence.
- The delayed subjects can be noun clauses (a, c) or infinitives (e).
- We can paraphrase these sentences with noun clauses (b, d) or infinitives (f) in subject position, but we often prefer the version with empty *it* because it allows us to put the important information at the end of the sentence. See also 6.7, 6.8, and 7.5.

a. <i>It is obvious that people make mistakes.</i>	What is obvious? <i>That people make mistakes.</i> b. <i>That people make mistakes is obvious.</i> (See also 7.5)
c. <i>It doesn't matter what other people think.</i>	What doesn't matter? <i>What other people think.</i> d. What other people think doesn't matter. (See also 7.5)
e. <i>It is almost impossible to find parking.</i>	What is almost impossible? To find parking. f. <i>To find parking is almost impossible.</i> (See also 6.7 and 6.8)

These structures can appear inside subordinate clauses.

g. <i>I apologized <b>because it was obvious that I was wrong.</b></i>	(An adverbial clause; Ch. 9.)
h. <i>I know <b>that it doesn't matter what other people think.</b></i>	(A noun clause; Ch. 7.)
i. <i>I want to live in a city <b>where it's not so hard to find parking.</b></i>	(A relative clause; Ch. 8)

We also use empty *it* in sentences about time and weather.

- k. When *it's* noon in New York, *it's* 6:00 a.m. in Hawaii.
- l. *It's* cloudy now, but they say *it* will be sunny tomorrow.

■ **Exercise 20** Complete each sentence by filling the blank.

- Children should start learning a foreign language as soon as possible because \_\_\_ obvious that language learning is easier at an early age.
- At noon this cafeteria is really crowded. \_\_\_ almost impossible to find a place to sit.
- It's noon in New York, but in Chicago \_\_\_ only 11:00 a.m.
- These days many people dress casually all the time. They think \_\_\_ doesn't matter how they dress as long as they are neat and clean.
- It's hot right now, but by evening \_\_\_ will be cool enough to take a run.
- I want to live in a place where \_\_\_ sunny almost all the time.

**2.12 *There is* (existential *there*)**

- We use *there* — called existential or expletive *there* — as an **empty** subject with a BE verb to say that something exists or does not exist (a, b) or to describe what something includes (c).
- To make a negative sentence we use *there is/are no* or *there isn't/aren't* (b).
- Although *there* is the grammatical subject, the **logical** subject (the subject in terms of meaning) is after the verb, and it determines whether the verb is singular or plural (c): *There is a difference, There are differences.*
- For inversion (2.13), we put the BE verb before *there* (d).

- There is a mistake in this sentence.*
- There is no E at the end. There isn't any E.*
- There are 26 bones in the human foot. There are 10 syllables in Parangaricutirimicuaro.*
- Is there anything good in the refrigerator? Are there any cupcakes?*

Existential *there* can appear inside subordinate clauses.

- We're taking our vacation at a park **where there is no WIFI.*** (A relative clause; Ch. 8.7.)
- We chose the park **because there was no WIFI.*** (An adverbial clause; Ch. 9)
- I don't care **whether there is a TV.*** (A noun clause; Ch. 7.)

Sentences with *there* can sometimes be paraphrased using *HAVE*.

- There are a lot of cafés in this neighborhood. = This neighborhood has lots of cafés.*

Avoid mistakes like these:

i. WRONG: <i>In Japan are many volcanoes.</i>	→ <i>In Japan there are many volcanoes.</i> OR <i>Japan has many volcanoes.</i>
j. WRONG: <i>In Japan there have many volcanoes.</i>	
k. WRONG: <i>In this state there are two factories make tools.</i> → ... <i>two factories <b>that</b> make ...</i>	The revised sentence uses a relative clause. See Ch. 8.3.
l. WRONG: <i>There is a family of birds live outside my window.</i> → <i>There is a family of birds <b>living</b> ...</i>	The revised sentence uses a reduced relative clause. See 8.12.
m. WRONG: <i>There was an earthquake destroyed the town.</i> → <i>An earthquake destroyed the town.</i>	<b>There was</b> is not needed.

**There is a difference.**

**There are differences.**

## HIGH PRIORITY

■ **Exercise 21** Find and fix an error involving existential *there* in **three or four** of the sentences below. Most of the sentences have no mistakes.

1. There are about 218 bones in the human body.
2. On the British channel island of Sark there are no cars. They aren't allowed.
3. There is not *w* sound in *answer*.
4. In New Orleans there have many great restaurants.
5. I want to work in a city where lots of cultural amenities like educational institutions, museums, and theaters.
6. In Japan there are many famous hot springs where people go to enjoy the health-giving waters.
7. Before 1959, there were 48 states in the U.S. During that year, Alaska and Hawaii became states, so now they are 50 states.
8. There are many ways to spell some common names. For example, *Lori*, *Laurie*, and *Lorrie* are all common spellings of the same name.

## 2.13 Inversion

**it is → is it**

## 2.13.1 Reversing the order of a subject and auxiliary

- Inversion, used mainly for questions (2.14), means reversing the order of a subject and verb. The auxiliary verb (or BE) goes before the subject.
- For simple present we use *do* or *does* (d) and for simple past, we use *did* (e). When we use *do*, *does*, or *did*, the main verb is always in the simple form (for example, *write* or *invent* but not *writes* or *wrote* or *invents* or *invented*).

Normal order (statement order)		Inverted order (question order)	
Subject	Verb	Auxiliary or BE	Subject
a. <i>It</i>	<i>is ...</i>	<i>Is</i>	<i>it ...?</i>
b. <i>The problem</i>	<i>has become ...</i>	<i>Has</i>	<i>the problem become ...?</i>
c. <i>Studying a language</i>	<i>can be ...</i>	<i>Can</i>	<i>studying a language be ...?</i>
d. <i>The government</i>	<i>spends ...</i>	<i>Does</i>	<i>the government spend ...? (<del>spends</del>)</i>
e. <i>Thomas Edison</i>	<i>invented ...</i>	<i>Did</i>	<i>Thomas Edison invent ... (<del>invented</del>)</i>

- We usually do not use inversion when the *wh* word or phrase is (or includes) the subject (f).
- We do not use inversion in a noun clause (g). See section 7.4 in Chapter 7.

f. <b>What causes climate change?</b> ( <del>does cause</del> ) <b>Who invented the light bulb?</b> ( <del>did invent</del> )
g. <i>I don't know <b>what he wants.</b></i> ( <del>does he want</del> )

■ **Exercise 22** Form a question based on the content of the first sentence.

Example. Hotels are expensive. How about camping? → *Is camping expensive?*

1. Riding a bike is easy. How about riding a motorcycle?
2. Walking is a safe way to exercise. How about running?
3. The LG company makes refrigerators. How about SONY?
4. Children like cartoons. How about adults?
5. Jane Austen wrote novels. How about Shakespeare?
6. Mozart died young. How about Beethoven?
7. Elephants can swim. How about lions?
8. Most birds can fly. How about penguins?
9. It rains a lot in Seattle. How about in Los Angeles?
10. Paris has great restaurants. How about London?

2.13.2 **Inversion with a fronted negative element** We use inversion when we move a negative element to the beginning of a sentence.

Negative-initial order with inversion	Usual word order
a. <b>Only if</b> you try it <b>will you know</b> how hard it is. (Notice that there is no comma.)	b. You will know how hard it is <b>only if...</b>
c. <b>Never have I seen</b> such destruction!	d. I have <b>never</b> seen such destruction!
e. <b>Not only did he lose</b> his job, but his wife left him.	f. He <b>not only</b> lost his job, but his wife...

See also 2.17.3 (e) for the use of *nor* at the beginning of a clause.

■ **Exercise 23** Complete the paraphrase of each sentence, with the negative element at the beginning. Remember to use inverted word order. For simple present or simple past of verbs other than BE, use a form of DO.

0. Wait until you're married. You will understand only then. → Only then *will you understand*.
1. You will understand only when you are older. → Only when ...
2. I did not meet my grandfather until I was 20. → Not until ...
3. Women did not get the right to vote until 1920. → Not until ...
4. You will be able to play well only after years of practice. → Only ...
5. A few years ago, a well-known financier cheated thousands of people out of their life's savings. So many people have never been deceived so thoroughly! → Never ...
6. He not only speaks French, but he's a great dancer. → Not only ...

### Does it snow in Florida?

#### 2.14 Questions

**2.14.1 Yes/no questions** usually have inverted word order (2.13) and end with a question mark.

- a. *Is Shanghai the largest city in the world? Are dogs colorblind? Was Confucius married?*
- b. *Do women live longer than men? Does it snow in Florida? Did Shakespeare write novels?*
- c. *Is the Internet making us smarter? Have you been sleeping well lately? Can gorillas swim?*

**2.14.2 Wh questions** begin with a *wh* word (*what, who, whom, whose, when, where, why, how*) or phrase. We use inversion (d), except when the *wh* phrase is (or is part of) the subject (e).

- d. *What kind of films do you like? How long has Apple been in business? When should we meet?*
- e. *What makes you happy? (~~does make~~) Who has already finished? Which team is winning?*

**2.14.3 We do not use inversion** when the question is inside another sentence. (The *wh* clause is a noun clause, not a true question. See 7.4.)

- f. *I want to know **what kind of films you like**. (~~do you like~~)*
- g. *We couldn't agree on **when we should meet**. (~~should we~~)*
- h. *Do you think **this paper is** well-written? Do you think **it is** interesting? (~~is this paper, is it~~)*

■ **Exercise 24** Imagine questions you might ask for each situation. Try to include some *yes/no* questions and some *wh* questions.

Example: You will have a test in your grammar class in a couple of days, but you don't know anything more about it. → *What will the test be about? How long will it be? How should I prepare for it? Will it be open-book? Will we have any review before the test?*

1. You are a parent. It is 3:00 in the morning. Your 15-year-old son has just come home. His clothes are dirty and he smells like smoke.
2. Your spouse (husband or wife) is out of town and promised to call you, but you have been home all day and have received no calls. It is now 9:00 p.m. and finally you get a call.
3. You are the president of a small import company, and you are interviewing a person who wants a job in your company. This person will have to talk with people from all over the world.
4. You are the person in the situation above who wants to be hired.
5. You are the parent of seven children under the age of ten. You are trying to find a babysitter for this coming Saturday night. You are talking to a person who might do it.
6. You are the person who might babysit in the situation above.
7. You are at a big shopping mall, just about to get into your car. You see a small boy in your car!
8. On the first day, your teacher says, "Writing will be very important in this class!"
9. You want to rent an apartment and you are talking on the phone with the manager.
10. You want to rent an apartment, and you have a chance to ask questions of a person who lives in the same building.

#### 2.14.4 What is it like / How is it?

To ask for a general description, we use *What is someone / something like?* (a, b). To ask about the temporary condition of someone or something (c) or to get an evaluation (d), we usually use *How is...?*

a. <i>What is your brother like?</i>	What kind of person is he?
b. <i>What is your literature class like?</i>	What kinds of things do you do in the class?
c. <i>How is your brother? (<del>How is he like?</del>)</i>	Is he well?
d. <i>How is your literature class?</i>	Do you like it?

## 2.14.5 Problems with questions

Problem sentences	Revisions	
a. Why we can't agree? →	<i>Why can't we agree?</i>	Subj.+ auxiliary → Aux. + subj.
b. What means ASAP? →	<i>What does ASAP mean?</i>	Don't omit the auxiliary DO.
c. When did it happened? →	<i>When did it happen?</i>	
d. How does it works? →	<i>How does it work?</i>	Use a base form verb after DO.
The following items relate to specific uses of <i>what</i> and <i>how</i> .		
e. How is this called? →	<i>What is this called?</i>	Use <i>what</i> , not <i>how</i> .
f. How do you call this? →	<i>What do you call this?</i>	
g. How many percent(age) of bikers wear helmets? →	<i>What percentage of people are left-handed?</i>	
h. How should I do? I don't know how to do. →	<i>What should I do? I don't know what to do.</i>	Use <i>what</i> , not <i>how</i> , unless you add an object after DO: <i>I don't know how to do this problem.</i>
i. How do you think of jazz? →	<i>What do you think of jazz? How do you feel about jazz?</i>	<b>What do you think of</b> OR <b>How do you feel about</b>

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■ **Exercise 25** If you want to get to know someone deeply, what kinds of questions might you ask? The questions below (based on questions suggested by a radio project called "Story Corps") cover a variety of topics.

**Step 1:** Read the questions and think about the content. At the same time, look for **two or three** mistakes and correct them. The mistakes are related to question formation as described in section 2.13. Remember: Most of the sentences are correct. Only two or three have a mistake.

- Who is the most important person in your life? Can you tell me about him or her?
- Who has been the biggest influence on your life? How have they influenced you?
- What is one important lesson you've learned in life?
- What is your earliest memory?
- Where did you grow up? What kind of place was it?
- What was your childhood like?
- As a child, what did you like to do?
- What are / were your parents like?
- How did your parents motivated you to do well in school?
- How is / was your relationship with your parents now?
- Did you / do you have a big family?
- When you think of your family, who do you think mostly of?
- What are / were your grandparents like?
- What do you remember about your first day of school?
- Did you ever get into trouble as a child? What was the worst thing you did?
- What is your best memory of childhood?
- Who were your best friends? What were they like?
- As a child, did you have a nickname? How did you get it?
- Can you remember something you didn't like as a child? Why you didn't like it?
- When you began to study English? What do you remember about it?
- What is one thing you are proud of?
- What is one thing that you care deeply about?
- Looking back on your life so far, do you have any regrets?
- What challenges are you facing right now?
- What are you looking forward to right now?
- What do you think will you be doing ten years from now?
- If I really want to know you well, is there anything else I should ask?

**Step 2:** Choose some questions to ask classmates. When you get an answer, ask follow-up questions. That is, keep asking about the same topic, to get more information. Then move on to new topics.

## 2.15 Commands, requests, and exclamatory sentences

**2.15.1 Three sentence types** We use sentences to give information (statements, a), to ask for information (questions, b; see 2.14), and to get people to do things (commands and requests, c).

a. <i>Memories fade. We easily forget things.</i>	Statements (declarative sentences)
b. <i>Do you remember? What makes us forget?</i>	Questions (interrogative sentences)
c. <i>Try to remember. Please don't forget!</i>	Commands and requests (imperative sentences)

**2.15.2 Commands and requests** A command (an imperative) is expressed with a base form verb, sometimes with *don't* or *do not* or an adverb (*always, never, just, please*) before it (d). The implied subject is "you," but there is no overt subject. We can add a subordinate clause or phrase before a command (e), but when we **report** a command (7.12), we transform it into an infinitive (f) or we report it directly, as a quotation (g).

- d. *Please pay with a check or credit card. Do not mail cash. Never share your passwords.*  
 e. *When in Rome, do as the Romans do. If you're getting a cup of coffee, get me one too.*  
 f. *They advised us to do as the Romans do. (They ~~advised us do~~ ...)*  
 g. *They said, "Do as the Romans do."*

**2.15.3 Exclamatory sentences** We can think of exclamatory sentences as transformations of statements, with more emotion. They begin with *How* or *What* or *What a* and usually end with an exclamation point. Although these sentences begin with *wh* words, they do not have inversion (2.14). The subject and verb in an exclamatory sentence is sometimes implied, not overt (d).

Statements	Exclamatory sentences	
a. <i>We had fun.</i>	<b>What fun</b> <i>we had!</i>	<i>What</i> + uncountable noun + S V
b. <i>It was a great party.</i>	<b>What a great party</b> <i>it was!</i>	<i>What a</i> + countable noun + S V
b. <i>It is good to remember.</i>	<b>How good</b> <i>it is to remember!</i>	<i>How</i> + adjective + S V
c. <i>We laughed.</i>	<b>How</b> <i>we laughed!</i>	<i>How</i> + SV
d. <i>It was a great day.</i>	<b>What a great day!</b>	The subject and verb are implied.

The three sentence types described above are based on the speaker's or writer's purpose: to give information, ask for information, or tell someone what to do. For another way of classifying sentences, based on grammatical structure, see 2.23.1, "Traditional sentence types."

## 2.16 Pronouns and reference

**2.16.1 Pronouns** usually refer to earlier nouns, noun phrases, or noun clauses. The noun that a pronoun refers to is the **referent** (also called the antecedent). The referent is often the noun closest to the pronoun (a), but sometimes we rely on context to make the reference clear (b). When the reference is not clear (c), it's better not to use a pronoun.

a. <i>The boy spoke to the old man, but he just turned away.</i>	<i>He = the old man.</i>
b. <i>The boy looked for the old man, but he didn't find him.</i>	<i>He = the boy. Him = the old man.</i>
c. <i>The boy sat next to the old man. He looked tired.</i>	<i>He = ? Change He to The boy or The man, or rethink the sentence.</i>

Sometimes the referent of a pronoun is later in the sentence (d).

d. <i>When he wants to go out, my dog sits by the door.</i>	<i>He = my dog.</i>
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**2.16.2 Pronouns take different forms**, depending on how they are used.

Subjects	Objects (after a verb or preposition)	Possessives before a noun	Possessives not before a noun
<i>I have...</i>	Remember <b>me</b> .	<b>my</b> name	<i>This is mine.</i>
<i>You can...</i>	Good for <b>you!</b>	<b>your</b> name	<i>This is yours.</i>
<i>She will...</i>	Listen to <b>her</b> .	<b>her</b> name	<i>This is hers.</i>
<i>He should...</i>	Help <b>him</b> .	<b>his</b> name	<i>This is his.</i>
<i>It works.</i>	Try <b>it</b> .	<b>its</b> name	<i>This is ours.</i>
<i>We know.</i>	I like <b>them</b> .	<b>our</b> name	<i>This is theirs.</i>
<i>They are....</i>		<b>their</b> name	

**2.16.3 Pronouns agree with their referents** in number (e) and gender (f) We can also use *it* for referents that are noun clauses, to talk about actions (g), facts (h), and ideas (i).

e. <i>Your paper should include details, but it doesn't need them in every paragraph.</i>	<i>It = your paper (singular). Them = details (plural).</i>
f. <i>The king loved the queen but she didn't love him.</i>	<i>She = the queen. He = the king.</i>
g. <i>Taking a taxi is convenient, but it costs a lot.</i>	<i>It = taking a taxi.</i>
h. <i>Sylvia is talented, but she doesn't seem to realize it.</i>	<i>It = the fact that she is talented.</i>
i. <i>He said he had been ill, but it wasn't true.</i>	<i>It = that he was ill.</i>

**2.16.4 Don't use a pronoun that has no clear referent.** Use a noun or noun phrase instead.

Unclear	Clear
j. <i>This is a strict school. They have to follow lots of rules.</i>	<i>The teachers have to follow lots of rules. OR The students have to follow lots of rules. OR Everyone has to follow lots of rules.</i>

### 2.16.5 Use a pronoun to avoid needlessly repeating a noun or noun phrase.

Repetitive	Improved
k. <i>They didn't like the film because the film was confusing.</i>	<i>They didn't like the film because it was confusing.</i>

For a chart that shows all the pronouns, see **pronouns** in the glossary at the end of the book. See 2.24, "Avoiding gender bias in pronoun choice," and 2.25, "Avoiding shifting points of view."

#### ■ Exercise 26

- a. Complete the sentence below with appropriate pronouns, starting with *I*.

*When \_\_\_ was young, \_\_\_ parents always helped \_\_\_ with \_\_\_ homework.*

Now create five more sentences with *she, he, we, you, and they*. The content will be the same except for the pronouns. Change *was* to *were* when it's required.

- b. Complete the sentences by adding pronouns. To choose the right pronoun, look carefully at the rest of the sentence. There may be more than one way.
- How can parents give \_\_\_ children a clear understanding of right and wrong? One of the most important things \_\_\_ can do is set an example through \_\_\_ own behavior. We all know that's the best way, but sometimes \_\_\_ have a hard time doing \_\_\_.
  - A message on a neighborhood website said, "My husband and I are looking for a babysitter for \_\_\_ two-year-old daughter. \_\_\_ is a very active child, and \_\_\_ need a break from watching \_\_\_ 24 hours a day. If \_\_\_ can help \_\_\_ out, please call \_\_\_ at the number listed below."
  - The title of an article said, "Broke your left arm? Exercise your left. \_\_\_ might help." According to the article, exercising the muscles on one side of your body can keep the muscles on the other side strong, even if \_\_\_ do not move \_\_\_.
  - To help \_\_\_ babies learn to fly, a mother bird doesn't push \_\_\_ out of the nest, but \_\_\_ might put food for \_\_\_ on a branch at some distance from the nest. Trying to get the food, a baby bird might fall to the ground. As \_\_\_ falls, \_\_\_ flaps \_\_\_ wings and begins to learn how to fly.
  - My niece always wanted a big family. \_\_\_ said \_\_\_ didn't mind if \_\_\_ had boys or girls. Now \_\_\_ and \_\_\_ husband have five boys, and \_\_\_ are expecting another baby soon. \_\_\_ will love \_\_\_ all equally, but if the new baby is a girl, \_\_\_ will have a special place in \_\_\_ hearts.
  - A woman named Sylvia Bloom was a legal secretary for 67 years in New York. \_\_\_ salary was modest, but \_\_\_ saved as much as \_\_\_ could. \_\_\_ wanted \_\_\_ money, after \_\_\_ death, to be used for college scholarships. That money amounted to more than eight million dollars. Today \_\_\_ helps students from low-income families achieve \_\_\_ dreams.

## 2.17 Sentences and clauses

### 2.17.1 Two kinds of clauses: Independent and subordinate

A **clause** consists of a subject, a verb or verb phrase, and associated parts such as objects and adverbials. An **independent clause** (also called a main clause) can stand alone as a sentence. A **subordinate clause** (also called a dependent clause) is **part** of a sentence. It cannot stand alone as a sentence.

Independent clauses (main clauses)	Subordinate clauses (dependent clauses)	Sentences
<i>I will call you</i>	<i>when we arrive</i>	<i>I will call you.</i> <i>I will call you when we arrive.</i> <i>When we arrive, I will call you.</i> NOT a sentence: <del><i>When we arrive.</i></del>
there was no school	<i>because it was Sunday</i>	<i>There was no school.</i> <i>There was no school because it was Sunday.</i> <i>Because it was Sunday, there was no school.</i> NOT a sentence: <del><i>Because it was Sunday.</i></del>
<i>is this the town</i>	<i>where you grew up</i>	<i>Is this the town?</i> <i>Is this the town where you grew up?</i> NOT a sentence: <del><i>Where you grew up.</i></del>
<i>we have everything</i>	<i>that we need</i>  <i>we need</i>	<i>We have everything.</i> <i>We have everything that we need.</i> <i>We have everything we need.</i> NOT sentences: <del><i>We need. That we need.</i></del>

### 2.17.2 Building sentences with subordination

**Subordination** refers to the ways we construct sentences with subordinate clauses. Other chapters of this text deal with subordinate clauses and the subordinating conjunctions that introduce them.

Types of subordinate clauses	
Noun clauses, using <i>that</i> or a <i>wh</i> word ( <i>what, when, etc.</i> )	Chapter 7
Relative clauses, using <i>that, which, who, whose, etc.</i>	Chapter 8
Adverbial clauses, using <i>when, because, although, etc.</i>	Chapter 9
Conditional clauses, using <i>if, unless, etc.</i>	Chapter 10

2.17.3 Building sentences with coordination

**Coordination** refers to the use of coordinating conjunctions (coordinators). The most important are *and* (for addition), *but* and *yet* (for contrast), *or* (for alternatives), and *so* (for a result.) We also use *nor*, meaning “and...not,” after a negative clause and *for*, which is similar to *because*. To remember these words, students sometimes use the mnemonic *FANBOYS*, from the first letters of the words.

a. <i>We all want to contribute to society, <b>and</b> our daily work is one way we do that.</i>	<i>And</i> introduces additional information.
b. <i>People seek a sense of purpose from their work, <b>but /yet</b> many jobs don't really provide that.</i>	<i>But</i> and <i>yet</i> introduce contrasting information. Sometimes we use <i>and yet</i> : <i>People seek a sense of purpose from their work, and yet many jobs ...</i>
c. <i>Machines are capable of doing many types of work, <b>so</b> some companies are replacing humans with machines.</i>	<i>So</i> introduces a result. Sometimes we use <i>and so</i> : <i>Machines are capable of doing many kinds of work, and so ...</i>
d. <i>Factory owners often face a difficult choice. They can continue to employ a human work force, <b>or</b> they can replace human workers with machines.</i>	<i>Or</i> introduces an alternative.
e. <i>Machines do not complain about working conditions, <b>nor do they</b> miss work because of illness or childcare problems. = ... <b>and they do not</b> miss ...</i>	We can use <i>nor</i> (usually after a negative clause) to mean “and ... not.” Note the structure: <i>nor do they ... (nor they)</i> See 2.13.2.
d. <i>Machines tend to be more reliable than human workers, <b>for</b> even the best-trained workers make mistakes.</i>	<i>For</i> is like <i>because</i> , but it is rather formal. It may sound too formal in some writing.

In the examples above, coordinating conjunctions join independent clauses, and commas separate the parts; the coordinating conjunction does not begin a new sentence. The same is true in (e) below. However, we *can* begin a sentence with a coordinating conjunction, especially if the part before the conjunction is long and complex (f, g).

**When can you begin a sentence with *and* or *but*?**

e. <i>Email is a convenient way to communicate, <b>but</b> it can be a burden for employees.</i>	After short, simple information, the part with a coordinating conjunction is added after a comma.
f. <i>According to one study, office workers spend 28 percent of their time dealing with email. They check for messages constantly, interrupting other tasks. <b>And</b> a lot of that checking happens at home.</i>	After long, complex information, especially if it is expressed in more than one sentence, a coordinating conjunction often begins a new sentence.
g. <i>Many important ideas in education — like having students do group projects and emphasizing active learning instead of lectures — have been implemented in grade schools and high schools. <b>But</b> in many colleges and universities, lecture-style education persists.</i>	

For information about using coordinating conjunctions with other sentence parts (besides independent clauses), see 2.18.4.

■ **Exercise 27** Choose one of the three coordinating conjunctions for each blank. (If you think another coordinating conjunction could be used, prepare to discuss that option.)

**The end of work?**

“The end of work” is a phrase that some writers have used to describe the way machines are doing more of the work that used to be done by people. This trend is also referred to as automation. We can welcome automation, \_\_\_ we can view it with skepticism. *or, so, nor*

People who welcome automation point out an unfortunate fact: Most work is not very interesting, \_\_\_ does it provide the worker with a sense of purpose. If automation frees people to do more interesting things, that's a good result. *so, but, nor*

Of course, unemployed people still need an income, \_\_\_ no one is going to pay them for learning to paint or play the guitar, no matter how rewarding those activities are. Skeptics also argue that Americans tend to view work as a good thing in itself, regardless of benefits. The idea is that all work is honorable, \_\_\_ even the lowliest ditch digger contributes to the welfare of society. *so, and, or for, or, but*

Whether we view automation with joy or fear, it is not going to go away. It is true that certain jobs may seem to require a human touch, \_\_\_ machines are already doing some of those jobs. You may think that only a person can write a news article, \_\_\_ some news organizations are already publishing articles generated by machines. The content of some types of articles is predictable and repetitive, \_\_\_ machines can produce them quite easily. *but, and, for so, and, yet yet, or, so*

Is automation something to look forward to, \_\_\_ is it something to fear? Maybe both. *and, or, but*



## 2.18 Parallelism with independent clauses and other structures

## 2.18.1 And

- The coordinating conjunction *and* can join independent clauses (a), verbs or predicates (b), objects (c), adverbials (d), subjects (e), prepositions (f), and subordinate clauses of various types (g-i).
- Elements joined by *and* may be inside phrases and clauses of all types.
- We use the term **parallelism** or **parallel structure** for structures involving *and*. The parts we join with *and* have the same grammatical role and usually the same or similar forms.
- We sometimes use a comma between **independent clauses** joined by *and* (a). With other elements, we do not usually use a comma.
- We can also join more than two elements of any type (j), using commas and *and*: A, B, C, and D. (The comma before *and* is optional.)

a. <i>I drink coffee, and you drink tea.</i>	Independent clause + independent clause (See also section 2.17.3.)
b. <i>I drink coffee and watch the news.</i>	Predicate + predicate
c. <i>I drink coffee and tea.</i>	Object + object
d. <i>I drink coffee in the morning and after dinner.</i>	Adverbial + adverbial
e. <i>My mom and my sister drink green tea.</i> (drinks)	Subject + subject (+ a plural verb)
f. <i>There are cafés in and around my neighborhood.</i>	Preposition + preposition
g. <i>I find that wine gives me a headache and (that) coffee keeps me awake.</i>	Object noun clause + object noun clause (Ch. 7)
h. <i>What you do and where you go is up to you.</i>	Subject noun clause + subject noun clause (Ch. 7) Note that the verb (is) is singular.
i. <i>A widow is a woman whose husband has died and who has not remarried.</i>	Relative clause + relative clause (Ch. 8)
j. <i>Teaching assistants grade papers, hold office hours, and help professors in other ways.</i>	Predicate + predicate + predicate

## 2.18.2 Avoiding faulty parallelism

Elements joined by *and* should have the same grammatical function: subjects, objects, predicates, etc. Usually they have the same form: nouns and nouns, verbs and verbs, etc. In (a)-(j), *and* joins elements with the same function and the same form. Sometimes the forms can be different if the functions are the same. In particular, parallel predicates (k) and modifiers (l) often have different forms. To avoid the mistake of faulty parallelism, do not join elements with different functions (m).

k. <i>I have worked here for 10 years and hope to continue.</i>	Parallel predicates of different forms
l. <i>Are you experienced and able to work well with others?</i>	Parallel modifiers (adjective phrases) of different forms
m. Wrong: <i>Are you experienced and can work well with others?</i> → <i>Are you experienced and able to work well ...?</i> OR <i>Are you experienced, and can you work well ...?</i>	Faulty parallelism: A modifier (an adjective) + a predicate ( <i>can ...</i> ). Use parallel modifiers or parallel clauses.

- 2.18.3 **The algebra of coordination** One way to understand coordination is to think of it as shown below.

$d(a + b) = da + db$	The first element, d, is “distributed” to the conjoined elements. D goes with both a and b.
WRONG: <i>For this assignment, our professor asked us to choose a major news event from the year of our birth and did a little research about it.</i>	... asked us to choose ... and do ... The “distributor” is ... <i>asked us to choose</i> (da) is correct, but <i>asked us to did</i> (db) is not.

## 2.18.4 But and or with a variety of structures

We also use the coordinating conjunctions *but* and *or* to join a variety of types of structures, as long as the functions are the same.

n. <i>I like oysters, but oysters don't like me.</i>	Independent clause + independent clause
o. <i>She is qualified but unable to start right away.</i>	Modifier + modifier
p. <i>With breakfast I drink coffee or tea.</i>	Object + object
q. <i>We need an employee who knows this software or can learn it quickly.</i>	Predicate + predicate

- **Exercise 28** Compare the structures of the sentences below, focusing on the two things in each one that are joined with *and*. In the blanks, copy one word from the part before *and* which is “distributed” (2.28.3) to the words after *and*. The first item is done for you. The answers follow.

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Notice that only the last one has a comma before *and*. Why?

1. She asked us to read several books and poems.	<u>several</u> poems
2. She asked us to read several books and one poem.	_____ one poem
3. She asked us to read several books and prepare for a quiz.	_____ prepare for a quiz
4. She asked us to read several books and gave us only three days to do it.	_____ gave us three days
5. She asked us to read several books, and I thought “There goes the weekend!”	Nothing is “distributed,” since the part after <i>and</i> is complete by itself.

Fix the problem in the sentence below. It is a problem because the part that is “distributed” does not go well with the part after *and*.

6. She asked us to read several books and poems, summarize them, and prepared for a quiz.

Answers: (2) read one poem, (3) to prepare for a quiz, (4) She gave. In (5) there is a comma before *and* (optionally) because the joined parts are both sentences (independent clauses). In (6), change *prepared* to *prepare* because *to* is the part that needs to be “distributed”: *She asked us to prepare*. (See also 2.2.3.)

- **Exercise 29** In the passage, underline the coordinating conjunctions (*and*, *or*, and *but*) and notice the parallelism. What kind of elements are joined? (For example, in the first paragraph, *and* joins subjects, and *but* joins independent clauses.) Look for **two or three** faulty parallelism problems. These problems are also word form problems (2.3). Fix each one by changing a word to make it parallel to an earlier word.

What kind of exercise is best? Running, playing a sport, and lifting weights all have their attractions, but what about walking?

Walking provides good exercise and doesn't cost a dime. You don't have to pay for a health club membership or special equipment. You can walk in your neighborhood, near your work place, or in a park. If you walk in your neighborhood, you'll notice what's going on — like a garage sale or remodeling project — and you might run into neighbors you don't often see. If you walk near your place of work, you might ask a coworker to join you. It's an easy way to socialize with a co-worker and develop a relationship without the bother of inviting the person to an event or have a party. If your neighborhood or work place isn't convenient for walking, a public park is probably just a short drive or bus ride away. There you can not only exercise your limbs but enjoy a calm atmosphere, away from traffic.

And yes, traffic can be a hazard. So if you walk where traffic is heavy, keep alert and resist the temptation to listen to music as you walk. Listening to a favorite song, you might not notice a careless driver or an obstacle in your path.

If you're worried about being bored while walking, think of it as an opportunity to reflect and maybe even solving problems. Doing nothing (or nearly nothing) is a platform for creativity. When your mind is free of distractions, you might be surprised to find that ideas bubble up, invite you to inspect them, and strengthen themselves, just as you strengthen your legs, your heart, and your lungs.

#### HIGH PRIORITY

- **Exercise 30** Correct the faulty parallelism mistakes, one in each item. In different items, you may need to change a word form (see 2.2), omit words, reorder words, or add words. There may be more than one way.
- Everyone wants to be successful, healthy, and happiness.
  - When I think about being happy, healthy, and success, I think first of my family.
  - This new product costs less, lasts longer, and it works better.
  - This new product lasts longer, works better, and less cost.
  - Seeking input from experts, weighing alternatives wisely, considering consequences carefully, and learn from mistakes are all things we expect of a good leader.
  - A good leader seeks input from experts, weighs alternatives wisely, considers consequences carefully, and learning from mistakes.
  - Careful driving reduces energy consumption and less dangerous.
  - If you drive more carefully, you can reduce your energy consumption and lowering your risk of an accident.
  - We need applicants who communicate well, know the local market, and good teamwork skills.
  - If you have good teamwork skills, knowledge of the local market, and experienced in sales, you might be the person we need.
  - As a job seeker, you need to identify companies you'd like to work for, find out what those companies value, and different versions of your resume that match each company's needs.
  - When you prepare different versions of your resume, you can highlight the experience and skillful that the company needs.
  - In your writing class, you will read articles, write and revise papers, keep a journal, and weekly quizzes.
  - Teachers teach, grade homework, prepare quizzes, and faculty meetings every week.
  - Diligence, obedience to authority, and respect for elders are admirable qualities, but we also want students to be creative, tolerant, and they should be resilient.

### 2.19 Fragments, run-ons, and comma splices

- Independent clauses (sentences) must be separated by a period. When you fail to separate sentences with a period, you create an error known as a **run-on** (a, b).
- If you separate independent clauses (sentences) with a comma instead of a period, you create an error known as a **comma splice** (c).
- If you punctuate a sentence part as a sentence, you create a **fragment** (d, e).

Some books use the term *run-on* for both run-ons and comma splices. See also Appendix B, "Basic punctuation for joining clauses," at the end of the book.

Problem	How to fix it	Revision
<b>Run-on:</b> a. WRONG: <i>Humans use tools we are not the only animals that do that.</i>	Add a conjunction between the parts, usually with a comma before it.	<i>Humans use tools, but we are not the only animals that do that.</i>
<b>Run-on:</b> b. WRONG: <i>Apes are smart they even use twigs as tools.</i> <b>Comma splice:</b> c. WRONG: <i>Apes are smart, they even use twigs as tools.</i>	Separate the parts with a period.	<i>Apes are smart. They even use twigs as tools.</i>
<b>Fragments:</b> d. WRONG: <i>Twigs are useful to apes. Because they can serve as tools.</i>	Join the fragment to the sentence before it (sometimes with a comma).  Omit the subordinating conjunction, creating two sentences.	<i>Twigs are useful to apes because they can serve as tools.</i> OR: <i>Twigs are useful to apes, because ...</i> OR <i>Because they can serve as tools, twigs are useful to apes.</i>  <i>Twigs are useful to apes. They can serve as tools.</i>
e. WRONG: <i>When an animal uses an object in its environment to accomplish some goal. We can say that the animal is using a tool.</i>	Join the fragment to the sentence after it.  Omit the subordinating conjunction and use different words to create two sentences.	<i>When an animal uses an object in its environment to accomplish some goal, we can say that the animal is using a tool.</i>  <i>Sometimes an animal uses an object in its environment to accomplish some goal. Then we can say that the animal is using a tool.</i>

## 2.20 Adverbs

**Adverbs** are a large class of words and phrases that serve various functions, usually optional, in sentences. The term *adverbial* is also used, especially for adverbs that consist of more than one word. (For adverbial clauses, see Ch. 9. Transition expressions are also a kind of adverb; see Ch. 3.) Adverbs can appear in various places in a sentence. The examples below show typical patterns, but there are often other options.

Adverbs **modify verbs** or **predicates** to express time, place, manner, frequency, reason, purpose, and intensity:

a. Time (when):	do it <b>now</b>	leave <b>tomorrow</b>	start <b>as soon as possible</b>
b. Place (where):	come <b>here</b>	move <b>forward</b>	interact <b>in cyberspace</b>
c. Manner (how):	say it <b>clearly</b>	work <b>slowly</b>	answer <b>with a smile</b>
d. Frequency (how often):	<b>often</b> makes mistakes	<b>always</b> asks questions	<b>never</b> happens
e. Reason (why):	thank him <b>for helping</b>	quit <b>out of frustration</b>	resign <b>because of a scandal</b>
f. Purpose (what for):	travel <b>for fun</b>	stop <b>to rest</b>	stand up <b>in order to see</b>
g. Intensity (how much):	talk <b>a lot</b>	<b>really</b> like sports	agree <b>to some extent</b>

Adverbs **modify adjectives** (h) or other **adverbs** (i) to express intensity (how much, to what degree):

h. Turtles are <b>somewhat / quite / pretty / rather / very</b> slow.	(Pretty is informal.)
i. Turtles move <b>somewhat / quite / pretty / rather / very</b> slowly.	

We do not usually use the adverbs in (h) and (i) to modify verbs or predicates.

j. Most children <del>very</del> like animals. → <b>really</b> like animals / like animals <b>a lot</b>
---

We use adverbs that **modify sentences** to express our characterization of the message (k) or our degree of certainty (l) or to limit a generalization (m).

k. <b>Frankly</b> , I don't care. <b>Unfortunately</b> , the dog ate my homework.
l. <b>Maybe</b> I'm wrong. <b>No doubt</b> you've heard the news.
m. <b>In general</b> , we agree. <b>For the most part</b> , people are cooperative.

We can often form an adverb by adding *-ly* to an adjective (n). However, we use *hard*, *late*, and *fast* as adverbs without *-ly* (o). Some words with *-ly* (*friendly*, *ugly*) are adjectives, not adverbs. With these words, we can form an adverb phrase: *She smiled in a friendly way* (NOT ~~*smiled friendly*~~).

Sentences with adjectives	Sentences with adverbs
n. Her explanation was <b>slow</b> and <b>clear</b> .	She explained <b>slowly</b> and <b>clearly</b> . ( <del>slow, clear</del> )
o. He's a <b>hard</b> worker. He's a <b>fast</b> worker. His work is never <b>late</b> .	He works <b>hard</b> . He works <b>fast</b> . He never hands his work in <b>late</b> . ( <del>hardly, fastly, lately</del> )

• *Hardly* and *lately* have other uses not related to the examples above. Check a dictionary.

We don't usually put an adverb (or other words) between a verb and its object (p). Note, however, that a particle in a phrasal verb (*on*, *in*, *off*, *away*, etc.; see 2.10) is considered part of the verb (q).

p. She <del>speaks fluently</del> French.	She speaks French <b>fluently</b> .
q. You should put on <del>first</del> your glasses.	You should put on your glasses <b>first</b> . You should <b>first</b> put on your glasses. <b>First</b> , you should put on your glasses.

## 2.21 Time expressions in the form of noun phrases

Expressions with time words like *time*, *day*, and *year* can be used as subjects or objects (a, b) and as adverbials (c, d) without any preposition.

Time expressions as subjects	Time expressions as adverbials
a. <b>The day after tomorrow</b> is my birthday.	c. I'll see you (on) <b>the day after tomorrow</b> .
b. Can you recall <b>the first time you heard a foreign language</b> ?	d. <b>The first time I heard a foreign language</b> , I was about six years old.

Days of the week (e) and phrases based on them (f) can be used as adverbials alone or after *on*.

e. Do you work ( <b>on</b> ) <b>Sunday</b> ?	f. Our class meets ( <b>on</b> ) <b>Tuesday evening</b> .
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We don't use a preposition before expressions like *this year* (*week*, *morning*, *season*, etc.), no matter where they are in a sentence. The same is true for expressions with *last* and *next* when they are followed by nouns like *week*, *month*, *season*, *semester*, *term*, and *year*.

f. I took 20 credits last semester. This semester I have 21. ( <del>in last / in this</del> )	Expressions like <i>this semester</i> , <i>last week</i> , and <i>next year</i> do not require a preposition.
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Time expressions with *this*, *last*, and *next* are usually oriented to the moment of speaking or writing, just like *tomorrow* and *yesterday*. That is, *this week* means now, and *next week* means the week after now (f). When such expressions are not oriented to the moment of speaking, we add *the* (h).

g. Classes begin next week. I registered last week.	The reference point for <i>next</i> and <i>last</i> is now, the moment of speaking.
h. We arrived on a Friday. Classes began <b>the next week</b> .	<b>The next week</b> is not related to now.

■ **Exercise 31** Look for two kinds of mistakes: (1) Find words that come between a verb and the object of the verb. Change the word order so that each object comes directly after its verb. (2) Look for time expressions like those in 2.2.1 and revise them if they are incorrect. Every item has one mistake.

- I usually drink coffee with my breakfast, but I have sometimes tea. This morning I had tea.
- If you speak fluently Chinese or English, you can form relationships with millions of people you might otherwise never be able to communicate with.
- The Language Center provides labs for classes. They have also a lab for independent work.
- Last semester I took Professor Allen's rhetoric class. In most of her classes, the students give every Friday oral presentations.
- I took in high school Latin, but since then I haven't taken any foreign language classes. Next term I might take Greek.
- Haiku is a very short form of poetry in Japanese. A haiku has three lines. It includes often a theme from nature.
- I couldn't finish my paper last night. I was too busy. I'll try to do it in this evening.

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## 2.22 Beginning and ending sentences

**2.22.1 Beginning with an adverbial** The most basic sentences begin with a subject, but we often begin with adverbial elements (2.21), especially to avoid confusing a reader or listener (a-c).

a. <i>We read an article about a single mother who raised 12 children last week. → Last week, we read an article ...</i>	She didn't raise 12 children <i>last week!</i>
b. <i>The author writes about problems his family had when he was growing up in the first chapter. → In the first chapter, the author writes about...</i>	Beginning with the adverbial <i>in the first chapter</i> puts it closer to the word it modifies, <i>writes</i> .
c. <i>In small towns, all high school students study the same things. Students can choose from lots of different courses in large urban schools. → In large urban schools, students can choose ...</i>	Starting with information about the place ( <i>in large urban schools</i> ) makes the sentence easier to process.

**2.22.2 Old before new** We often begin with **old** information that echoes something from the preceding sentence, making the connection clear for the reader or listener (d, e). In general, we end a sentence with the most important information — **new** information that we are going to develop in the following sentence. See also Appendix D, “Principles for ordering information in sentences.”

d. <i>Our goal is to increase production by 20%. <b>To meet this goal</b>, we need to hire more staff and upgrade our equipment.</i>	<i>To meet this goal</i> (an adverbial of purpose; see 9.12) echoes old information ( <i>Our goal</i> ) from the preceding sentence.
e. <i>In high school, I became interested in other languages and countries. <b>That interest</b> was nurtured by a history teacher who encouraged me to take a “gap” year for travel after graduation. <b>During that year</b>, I traveled to South America, where I immersed myself in another language and learned things I could never have learned from books. <b>Now, as I look ahead to my college years</b>, I am drawn to universities with strong international ties.</i>	<i>That interest</i> (the subject) echoes old information ( <i>I became interested in ...</i> ) from the preceding sentence.  <i>During that year</i> (an adverbial of time) echoes old information ( <i>a “gap” year</i> ) in the preceding sentence.  <i>Now, as I look ahead ...</i> (an initial adverbial of time) clearly marks a shift in the topic.

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**2.22.3 Beginning with a noun phrase** If you begin with a noun or noun phrase that is not a time adverbial (2.22), use it as a subject — that is, with a verb after it. Avoid the mistake of starting a sentence with a noun phrase that is neither a subject nor part of an adverbial (f - i).

f. <i>In suburban areas, people rely on cars. <del>Large cities, people can use public transportation.</del></i>	→ <b>In large cities, people can ...</b> <i>Large cities</i> is changed to an adverbial. OR <b>Large cities have better public transportation.</b> <i>Large cities</i> is the subject, with predicate that matches it.
g. <i><del>Recent years, more and more young people have been deciding to delay or even forgo marriage.</del></i>	→ <b>Recently, more and more young people ...</b> OR <b>In recent years, more and more young people ...</b> <i>Recent years</i> can become an adverbial with <i>-ly</i> or with <i>in</i> before it.
h. <i><del>My long-term goal, I want to get a job in the financial sector.</del></i>	→ <b>My long term goal is to get a job ...</b> (See 6.7)
i. <i><del>Our main problem, we didn't have enough time.</del></i>	→ <b>Our main problem was that we didn't ...</b> (See 7.6.)

Days of the week are used as adverbials with no preposition or with *on*, no matter where they appear in the sentence (j).

j. <i>Sundays we are open from 10 to 6.</i>	<i>Sundays</i> by itself can be an adverbial. Also correct: <i>On Sundays.</i>
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**2.22.4 Beginning with For** We sometimes use a phrase starting with *For* at the beginning of a sentence to clarify the thing or person we are talking about (k). We usually don't begin with *For X* if we can instead begin with *X* as the subject (l, m).

k. <i>For older people in the U.S., November 22, 1963, is a memorable date.</i>	<i>For older people</i> at the beginning makes it clear whose memories we are talking about.
l. <i><del>For older people in the U.S., they will never forget November 22, 1963.</del></i> → <i>Older people in the U.S. will never ...</i>	<i>For</i> is not needed because <i>Older people</i> can be the subject of the sentence.
m. <i>Mexican people tend to value family and tradition. <del>For Americans, they seem to be more individualistic and less concerned about the past.</del> Americans seem ...</i>	<i>For</i> is not needed because <i>Americans</i> can be the subject of the sentence. Another option: <i>As for Americans, they seem ...</i>

**2.22.5 Beginning with an -ing word** An *-ing* word or phrase at the beginning may be a subject (n; see also 6.4). It may also be an adverbial, usually with a comma after it (o). If it is an adverbial, you need a subject after it. Avoid mixing these two types of structures (p). See also 2.2.4.

n. <i>Kendra is bilingual. <u>Knowing a second language is a great advantage.</u></i> [ Subject ] [Predicate]
o. <i>Knowing a second language, <u>she has a great advantage.</u></i> [Adverbial] [Subject] [Predicate]
p. <i>Knowing a second language has a great advantage.</i>

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## 2.23 Sentence variety in your writing

**2.23.1 Traditional sentence types** Traditional grammar classifies sentences as shown below. When writing teachers advise students to add sentence variety to their writing, they are often thinking of this classification.

Simple:	<i>I will call you.</i>	There is just one clause.
Compound:	<i>I will call you, and you can pick us up.</i>	Two or more clauses are joined by coordination (2.17.3).
Complex:	<i>I will call you when we arrive. When we arrive, I will call you.</i>	There are two or more clauses with at least one subordinate clause ( <i>when we arrive</i> ).
Compound-complex:	<i>I will call you when we arrive, and you can pick us up. I will call you when we arrive, and you can pick us up if you're not too busy.</i>	There are two or more independent clauses ( <i>I will call you, you can pick us up</i> ) with at least one subordinate clause ( <i>when we arrive, if you're not too busy</i> ).

**2.23.2 Avoiding choppiness** We use the term **choppy** to describe writing in which sentences are short and simple, mostly following the same pattern (usually with the subject first). You can avoid choppiness by combining sentence parts using coordination (2.17.3) and subordination (2.17.2 and Ch. 9) and by omitting unnecessary parts.

Choppy style	Improved style	
a. <i>My name is J. M. I am 23 years old. I am a social worker. I got my degree in social work because I love to help people. I have worked as a social worker for one year.</i>	b. <i>My name is J.M., and I am 23 years old. Because I love to help people, I got my degree in social work and have worked in the field for one year.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two short sentences are joined by <i>and</i> (2.17.3); the third is omitted.</li> <li>• The part with <i>Because ...</i> is moved to the beginning.</li> <li>• The last sentence is reduced to a predicate that is parallel to <i>got my degree in social work</i> (2.18).</li> </ul>
c. <i>I'm going to Florida during winter break. There are many tourist attractions in Florida. It's hard to choose among them. We plan to spend 10 days there. I don't know whether it is enough or not.</i>	d. <i>I'm going to Florida during winter break. There are so many tourist attractions in Florida that it's hard to choose among them. Though we plan to spend ten days there, I don't know whether it is enough.</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two simple sentences are joined by subordination with <i>so...that</i> (9.11).</li> <li>• Two simple sentences are joined by subordination using <i>though</i> (9.19.2) and the unnecessary words or <i>not</i> are omitted (7.4.2).</li> </ul>

## USAGE GUIDE

## 2.24 Avoiding gender bias in pronoun choice

Choosing between male and female pronouns can be difficult. Should you say *Everyone has his own opinion?* *Everyone has his or her own opinion?* *Everyone has their own opinion?* Should you avoid the choice by saying *Everyone has an opinion?* Traditionally, male pronouns were often used to refer to words like *everyone* and *someone* and phrases like *a student* or *an applicant*. Today, to avoid gender bias, we use other options. Options (d) and (e) below can help you avoid problems.

a. <i>For this job, we need an applicant who knows how to use <b>his</b> time efficiently.</i>	The sentence may suggest that only men can be hired. To avoid gender bias, this style is avoided today.
b. <i>For this job, we need an applicant who knows how to use <b>his or her</b> time efficiently.</i>	We can use <i>his</i> or <i>her</i> — and <i>he</i> or <i>she</i> , <i>helshe</i> , and <i>s/he</i> — but this style is becoming less common today.
c. <i>For this job, we need an applicant who knows how to use <b>their</b> time efficiently.</i>	This style is sometimes recommended today, even though <i>their</i> traditionally refers only to a plural noun.
d. <i>For this job, we need <b>applicants</b> who know how to use <b>their</b> time efficiently.</i>	This revision uses a plural noun as the referent of <i>their</i> .
e. <i>For this job, we need an applicant <b>with good time management skills</b>.</i>	This revision avoids problems of pronoun choice by using a different expression.

2.25 Impersonal *you* and *one* in generalizations

We can use the pronouns *one* and *you* (impersonal *you*) in generalizations. *One* is formal.

a. In this painting, one can see the artist's mastery of color.	The sentence is a generalization, in formal style, about what anyone can see.
b. When you reach a certain point in life, ask yourself, "How do I want to be remembered?"	The sentence is a generalization about what happens to everyone.

## 2.26 Avoiding shifting points of view

Avoid the problem shown below, sometimes referred to as **shifting points of view**. Below, each sentence on the left begins well, but the pronoun that follows doesn't work well with the beginning. This problem often occurs in generalizations. When you use *you* or *people* in making a generalization, be consistent throughout the sentence.

Avoid this:	Use a consistent point of view:
a. <i>When people are motivated, you can do almost anything.</i>	<i>When you are motivated, you can do almost anything. When people are motivated, they can do almost anything.</i>
b. <i>The library employees help me a lot. When you need help, they are always there.</i>	<i>The library employees help me a lot. When I need help, they are always there. The library employees are very helpful. When you need help, they are always there.</i>

## 2.27 Problems with sentence structure (see also 2.14.5)

Problem sentences	Revisions	
1. In my country has a centralized education system.	- My country <u>has</u> ... - In my country, <u>we have</u> ... - In my country, <u>there is</u> ...	A sentence or clause needs a <u>subject</u> and a <u>complete verb</u> .
2. We returned the product because didn't work properly.	We returned the product because <u>it didn't work</u> properly.	See 2.2. (There are some exceptions.*)
3. The Wall Street Journal one of the most influential news organizations in the country.	<u>The Wall Street Journal is</u> one of the most ...	
4. People that you have never met, they have different experiences.	<u>People that you have never met have</u> different experiences.	Don't use an extra subject. (2.2.2)
5. Recent years, the world has experienced many serious natural disasters.	In recent years, the <u>world has</u> ... OR <u>Recent years have been marked</u> by a number of serious natural disasters.	Every noun phrase needs to have a grammatical role — usually as subject, the object of a verb, or the object of a preposition. (2.2)
6. A lot of food are wasted.	<u>A lot of food is</u> ...	
7. Problems related to global warming is especially serious for low-lying countries.	<u>Problems related to global warming are</u> ...	Verbs must agree with subjects. (2.2.5)
8. I went to a party but I didn't enjoy.	I went to a party, but I didn't enjoy it. OR I didn't enjoy myself.	Some verbs require an object. (2.4.2)
9. By the time we arrived our apartment, we were exhausted.	By the time we arrived, we were ... OR By the time we arrived at our apartment, we were ...	Don't use an object after an intransitive verb. (2.4.4)
10. I don't need my laptop today, so I can lend you.	... lend it to you ...	
11. The committee gives scholarships for needy students.	... gives scholarships to needy students / gives needy students scholarships.	For two-object verbs, follow the rules in section 2.6.
12. There are five parts each one has four pages. (This type of error is called a run-on.)	There are five parts. Each one has ...	
13. There are five parts, each one has four pages. (This type of error is called a comma splice.)	OR There are five parts, and each one ...	Make separate sentences or use a conjunction between the parts. (2.19 and Appendix B)

14. Spellchecking programs are not completely reliable. Because they miss some mistakes and they point out some things that are not mistakes.	Spellchecking programs are not completely reliable (,) because they miss ... OR ... not completely reliable. They miss ...	This type of error is called a fragment. Join the fragment to another sentence OR omit the conjunction, creating two sentences. (2.19 and Appendix B)
15. We live on a bus line. But, we never take the bus.	We live on a bus line, but we never take the bus. OR We live on a bus line. However, we never take the bus.	We don't normally use a comma after <i>but</i> . The comma goes before <i>but</i> . (2.19 and Appendix B)
16. Many performers who are known primarily for their acting can also sing and dancing.	Many performers who are known primarily for their acting can also <u>sing and dance</u> . (Performers <u>can sing and performers can dance</u> .)	Elements joined by a coordinating conjunction (usually <i>and</i> ) should be in the similar forms: noun phrase and noun phrase, predicate and predicate, etc. The first part (A) must work well with both of the other parts, B and C: A (B and C) = AB and AC.
17. Texting while driving will distract you and might have an accident.	Texting while driving will distract you and you might have an accident. (Parallel independent clauses) OR Texting while driving will distract you and might cause an accident. (Parallel predicates: <u>will distract you</u> and <u>might cause</u> ...)	
18. If you exercise regularly will make you feel stronger.	If you exercise regularly, <u>you will feel</u> stronger. OR <u>Exercising regularly will make</u> you feel ...	
19. One of the sports I like best is tennis. OR One of the things/activities I like best is playing tennis.	One of the <b>sports</b> I like best is <b>tennis</b> . OR One of the <b>things/activities</b> I like best is <b>playing tennis</b> .	The beginning of the sentence must fit the end. Avoid mismatches. (2.2.4)
20. Driving a car instead of taking the bus spends too much money.	<b>Driving</b> a car instead of taking the bus costs too much money. OR If you drive instead of take the bus, you spend too much money.	
21. I very like it.	I really like it / like it very much / I like it a lot.	(2.20 h and i)

\*Some exceptions to the rule that every sentence needs a subject and a verb:

- In imperative sentences (commands), there is an implied subject *you* but there is no overt subject. An imperative sentence usually begins with a verb: Be careful. (= YOU should be careful). Don't go so fast. (= YOU should not go so fast.)
- Some special sentence patterns do not always require a subject and a verb: *The sooner, the better*.
- We often shorten sentences, especially in conversation, omitting subjects and parts of verb phrases: *Seen any good movies lately?* (= *Have you seen...?*) *Want some more coffee?* (= *Do you want...?*) *Having a good time?* (= *Are you having...?*) In writing as well as in speaking, we often answer a question without using a complete sentence. (*What accounts for academic success? A combination of ability and effort.*)