ENGLISH AT HAND

英语使用手册

CHRISTOPHER G. HAYES

GRAMMAR

·

PUNCTUATION

·

MECHANICS AND SPELLING

·

USAGE

·

ESL POINTERS

·

EFFECTIVE WRITING

·

DOCUMENTATION

ENGLISH AT HAND
英语使用手册

Christopher G. Hayes

陈　璐　译注

English At Hand

Christopher G. Hayes

前　言

　　English at Hand（《英语使用手册》）是一本简洁、易使用的英语参考书,是为那些具有一定基础的英语学习者进一步提高英语写作水平而编写的,适合具有高中以上英语水平的英语学习者、大学生以及具有更高英语水平的学生及研究人员使用。

　　本书对英语的传统语法、标点符号的使用、写作细节及词语的正确使用等作了系统而详尽的总结,并详细描述解释了一些写作中常见的句子错误,为之提供了改正方法。通过非母语英语课程提示,本书从一个新的角度为英语学习者提供了宝贵的学习资料。此外,本书还设专章讨论如何写好句子、段落及论文,并在最后总结了两种最常见的写作格式,为英语学习者提供了准确而生动的参考资料。

　　本书覆盖面广,涉及到写作的方方面面,语言简洁、准确,结构清晰;其独特详尽的目录索引更是方便了广大读者的使用,是一本极具参考价值的英语写作工具书。

PREFACE

English at Hand is a concise, easy-to-use reference tool for the first-year college writer and researcher as well as for the more advanced student needing a quick answer to a writing question. Its modest price and compact form make this book easy to have and keep at hand — in a notebook or binder, in a folder of essay drafts, or in a backpack.

English at Hand reviews the basics of traditional English grammar and the conventions of academic and professional punctuation, mechanics, and usage. In addition, it offers the following: illustrations and explanations of the most common sentence errors and how to correct them; advice on constructing clear, effective sentences; valuable ESL pointers for nonnative speakers; advice for writing effective paragraphs, essays, and research papers; and MLA and APA guidelines for documentation. Throughout, the explanations are always brief, clear, and fully illustrated.

The book is also easy to use. Because it can fit inside a three-ring notebook, its information is only a finger-flip away. Because of its clear headings and thorough index, it takes only a moment to find the answers to your questions. Need to review sentence types? Look at Chapter 5. Don't know what your instructor means by *parallelism*? Turn to Chapter 12. Unsure of whether to use *affect* or *effect* or *lay* or *lie*? Page through Chapter 28, "Glossary of Usage." Want to know how to document a quotation from a book? Refer to Chapters 36 – 38, "Documentation."

English at Hand will be an invaluable resource in any course that requires writing. Keep it with you, and you'll always have the answer — right at hand.

CONTENTS 目录

1 / Parts of Speech

Words — the building blocks of sentences — can be divided into eight parts of speech. **Parts of speech** are classifications of words according to their meaning and use in a sentence.

This section will explain the eight parts of speech:

nouns	prepositions	conjunctions
pronouns	adjectives	interjections
verbs	adverbs	

1a Nouns

A **noun** is a word that is used to name something: a person, a place, a thing, or an idea. Nouns are classified in various ways:

Proper nouns and common nouns. A **proper noun** refers to someone or something specific and is capitalized (*Alice Walker, Chicago, July*). All other nouns are **common nouns** (*woman, city, month*). (See 23g, page 45.)

Singular and plural nouns. A **singular noun** names one person, place, thing, or idea (*boy, alley, truth*). A **plural noun** refers to two or more persons, places, things, or ideas. Most singular nouns can be made plural with the addition of an *s (boys, alleys, truths).* Some nouns, like *box*, have irregular plurals (*boxes*). You can check on nouns you think may have irregular plurals by looking up the singular form in a dictionary. (See 2a, page 5.)

Collective nouns. A collective noun refers to a group of persons or things that is generally thought of as one unit. Examples are *group, jury,* and *team*. (See 6d, page 13.)

Count and noncount nouns. Count nouns name persons, places, things, or ideas that can be counted (*one man, two cities, three balls, four questions*). **Noncount nouns** name things that come in forms that cannot be counted (*flour, air, affection*). (See "Articles with Count and Noncount Nouns," page 61.)

1b Pronouns

A **pronoun** is a word that stands for a noun. Pronouns eliminate the need for constant repetition. Compare the following two examples:

Lisa met Lisa's friends in the record store at the mall.
Lisa meets Lisa's friends there every Saturday.

Lisa met **her** friends in the record store at the mall. **She** meets **them** there every Saturday.

The pronoun *her* is used to replace the word *Lisa's*. The pronoun *she* replaces *Lisa*. The pronoun *them* replaces the words *Lisa's friends*.

Personal pronouns. A personal pronoun refers to a particular person, place, or thing. It can act in a sentence as subject, object, or possessive.

Singular:	I, me, my, mine, you, your, yours, he, him, his, she, her, hers, it, its
Plural:	we, us, our, ours, you, your, yours, they, them, their, theirs

Relative pronouns. A relative pronoun refers to a person or thing already mentioned in the sentence. It begins a dependent clause: Here is a watch **that** I found.

who	whose	whom	which	that

Interrogative pronouns. An interrogative pronoun introduces a question: **What** day is this?

who	whose	whom	which	what

Demonstrative pronouns. A demonstrative pronoun is used to point out a particular person or thing: **This** is my car.

this	that	these	those

Do not use *them* (as in *them shoes*), *this here*, *that there*, *these here*, or *those there* to point out.

Reflexive pronouns. A reflexive pronoun is one that ends in -*self* or -*selves*. It is used as the object of a verb: Cathy cut **herself.** It can also be used as the object of a preposition when the subject of the verb is the same as that object: James sent a birthday card to **himself.**

Singular:	myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself
Plural:	ourselves, yourselves, themselves

Intensive pronouns. Intensive pronouns have exactly the same *forms* as *reflexive pro-*

2

nouns. The difference is in how they are used. An intensive pronoun is used to add emphasis: I **myself** will need to read the contract before I sign it.

Indefinite pronouns. An indefinite pronoun refers to a nonspecific person or thing.

each	either	everyone	nothing
both	several	all	any
most	none		

Reciprocal pronouns. A reciprocal pronoun expresses shared actions or feelings. It refers to individual parts of a plural antecedent: The students help **each other** prepare for finals.

each other   one another

(For more information on pronouns, see 6d, pages 13 – 16, and "Pronouns," pages 16 – 20.)

1c   Verbs

Verbs generally express action or being. Every complete sentence must contain at least one verb. There are several categories of verbs.

Action and linking verbs. A verb that expresses action is called an **action verb**. It tells what is happening in a sentence.

Mr. Jensen **swatted** at the bee with his hand.

A verb that expresses a state of being is a **linking verb**. A linking verb joins (or links) the subject of a sentence to a **subject complement**, a word that modifies or renames the subject. Linking verbs are usually forms of *be*.

Forms of the Linking Verb *Be*

am	are	were	have been
had been	is	was	will be
has been	will have been		

The sun **is** a star.
> *Is* joins the subject, *sun*, to a word that renames, or identifies, it: *star*.

Verbs such as *look*, *seem*, and *taste* are also linking verbs when they are followed by a subject complement. (For more about subject complements, see 2b, page 5.)

This cucumber **tastes** bitter.
> *Tastes* links the subject, *cucumber*, to a word that modifies it: *bitter*.

Some Common Linking Verbs

look	sound	smell	taste
feel	become	appear	seem

Main and helping verbs. A verb is made up of at least one word, the main verb, plus one or more helping verbs that may precede it.

The basketball team **will be leaving** for a game at six o'clock.

> In this sentence, the main verb is *leaving*. The helping verbs are *will* and *be*. *Leaving* by itself would not make sense as a verb. It would be incorrect to say, "The basketball team leaving for a game at six o'clock." Words that end in -*ing* cannot be the verb of a sentence unless they are accompanied by at least one helping verb.

Oscar **should have worn** a jacket to his job interview.

> In this sentence, *Oscar* is the subject. What should Oscar have done? He *should have worn* (a jacket). *Should* and *have* are helping verbs. The last verb in the phrase, *worn*, is the main verb. *Worn* by itself could not be the verb. It would not be correct to say, "Oscar worn a jacket to his job interview."

The Helping Verbs

Forms of be:	be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been
Forms of have:	have, has, had
Forms of do:	do, does, did
Modals:	can, could, may, might, must, ought (to), shall, should, will, would

Each of the helping verbs can be used alone or in a variety of combinations, such as *have been*, *may be*, *might have been*, and *would have been*.

Modals, unlike other helping verbs, do not change form to indicate tense. In other words, they do not take such ending as -*ed*, -*s*, and -*ing*. After the modals, always use the basic form of a verb, the form in which a verb is listed in the dictionary (*go*, *see*, *work*, and so on).

The factory **will close** tomorrow.
We **should attend** the wedding.

Helping verbs are sometimes called **auxiliary verbs**. (For more about helping verbs, see "Verbs," pages 9 – 16.)

Transitive and intransitive verbs. A transi-

tive verb requires a direct object to complete its meaning. **A direct object** is a word or words that receive the action of the verb and answer such questions as *whom?* or *what?*

> The florist **uses** wildflowers.
>> *Uses* is a transitive verb. The direct object is *wildflowers*; it answers the question *uses what?*

An intransitive verb does not need a direct object to complete its meaning.

> Oil **floats.**

Many verbs can be transitive or intransitive depending on their use. For instance, in the following sentence, *floats* is transitive:

> My brother **floats** paper boats in the tub.
>> In this sentence, *floats* has a direct object — *paper boats*.
>> *Paper boats* answers the question *floats what?*

Phrasal verbs. A phrasal verb is made up of a main verb followed by a particle. **A particle** is a preposition that functions as part of the verb. The particle gives the verb a different meaning than it has by itself. For example, the particle *up* changes the verb *look* to *look up*: **Look up** the definition in the dictionary. There are numerous phrasal verbs, including *call up*, *find out*, *hand in*, *make up*, and *put off*.

> When your papers are done, **hand** them **in.**
> Let's hug and **make up.**

Words that are not verbs. Here are some tips to help you find the verb in a sentence:

- The verb of a sentence never begins with the word *to*.

  > The instructor agreed to provide ten minutes for study before the quiz.
  >> Although *provide* is a verb, *to provide* cannot be the verb of a sentence. The verb of this sentence is *agreed*.
  > (For more information on verbs that follow the word *to*, see 3b, page 7, and 13b, page 27.)

- Certain adverbs — such as *not*, *just*, *never*, *only*, and *always* — may appear between the main verb and the helping verb. They describe the verb, but they are never part of it.

  > The canary **does** not **sing** in front of visitors.
  > We **will** never **eat** at that restaurant again.

1d　Prepositions

A preposition is a word that connects a noun or a pronoun to another word in the sentence.

> A man **in** the bus was snoring loudly.
>> *In* is a preposition. It connects the noun *bus* to *man*.

The following is a list of common prepositions.

Common Prepositions

about	before	down	into	through
above	behind	during	like	to
across	below	except	of	toward
after	beneath	for	off	under
among	beside	from	on	up
around	between	in	over	with
at	by	instead of	since	without

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun. The words *in the bus*, for example, are a prepositional phrase. There is a prepositional phrase in the following sentence:

> The man **with the black moustache** left the restaurant quickly.
>> The noun *moustache* is the object of the preposition *with*.
>> The prepositional phrase *with the black moustache* describes the word *man*. It tells us exactly which man left the restaurant quickly.

1e　Adjectives

An **adjective** is a word that describes a noun (the name of a person, place, thing, or idea). Look at the following sentence:

> The dog lay down on a mat in front of the fireplace.

Now look at this sentence when adjectives have been inserted:

> The **shaggy** dog lay down on a **worn** mat in front of the fireplace.
>> The adjective *shaggy* describes the noun *dog*; the adjective *worn* describes the noun *mat*.

Adjectives add spice to our writing. They also help us to identify particular people, places, or thing. They can be found in two places:

- An adjective may come before the word it describes: a **damp** night, the **moldy** bread, a **striped** umbrella.
- An adjective that describes the subject of a sentence may come after a linking verb. The linking verb may be a form of the verb *be:* He *is* **furious.** I *am* **exhausted.** They *are* **hungry.** Other linking verbs include *feel, look, sound, smell, taste, appear, seem,* and *become:* The soup *tastes* **salty.** Your hands *feel* **dry.** The dog *seems* **lost.**

The words *a, an,* and *the* (called **articles**) are generally classified as adjectives.

(For more information on adjectives, see "Adjectives and Adverbs," pages 20 – 21. Also see page 52 for when to use *a* and *an.*)

1f   Adverbs

An **adverb** is a word that describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Many adverbs end in the letters *ly.* Look at the following sentence:

> The canary sang in the pet store window as the shoppers greeted each other.

Now look at this sentence after adverbs have been inserted:

> The canary sang **softly** in the pet store window as the shoppers **loudly** greeted each other.

The adverbs add details to the sentence. They also allow the reader to contrast the singing of the canary to the noise the shoppers are making.

Look at the following sentences and the explanations of how adverbs are used in each case:

> The chef yelled **angrily** at the young waiter.
> > The adverb *angrily* describes the verb *yelled.*

> My mother has an **extremely** busy schedule on Tuesdays.
> > The adverb *extremely* describes the adjective *busy.*

> The sick man spoke **very** faintly to his loyal nurse.
> > The adverb *very* describes the adverb *faintly.*

Some adverbs do not end in *-ly.* Examples include *very, often, never, always,* and *well.*

(For more information on adverbs, see 2b, pages 5 – 6, and "Adjectives and Ad-

verbs." pages 20 – 21.)

1g   Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words that connect. There are three kinds of conjunctions.

Coordinating conjunctions. A coordinating conjunction joins ideas with equal roles in a sentence.

> Max and Roger interviewed for the job, but their friend Anne got it.
> > The coordinating conjunction *and* connects two proper nouns that are both subjects of the same verb: *Max* and *Roger.* The coordinating conjunction *but* connects two equal word groups (independent clauses): *Max and Roger interviewed for the job* and *their friend Anne got it.*

The Coordinating Conjunctions

and	so	nor	yet
but	or	for	

(For more on coordinating conjunctions, see 5b, page 8; 10c, page 23; and 13a, page 26.)

Correlative conjunctions. Correlative conjunctions, which function in pairs, also join ideas with equal roles in a sentence.

> We will **either** repaint the room **or** wallpaper it.
> > *Either* and *or* join the two verbs of the sentence: *repaint* and *wallpaper.*

Common Correlative Conjunctions

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

(For more on correlative conjunctions, see 12a, pages 25.)

Subordinating conjunctions. When a subordinating conjunction is added to a clause, the clause can no longer stand alone as an independent sentence. It is no longer a complete thought. For example, look at the following sentence:

> Karen fainted in class.

The word group *Karen fainted in class* is a complete thought. It can stand alone as a sentence. See what happens when a subordinating conjunction is added to a complete thought:

> **When** Karen fainted in class.

Now the words cannot stand alone as a sentence. They are dependent on other words to complete the thought:

> **When** Karen fainted in class, we put her feet up on some books.

Common Subordinating Conjunctions

after	before	so that	whenever
although	even if	though	where
as	even though	unless	wherever
as if	if	until	whether
because	since	when	while

(For more information on subordinating conjunctions, see 5b, page 8; 9a, page 22; and 13a, page 26.)

1h Interjections

Interjections are words that are used to express emotion. They have no grammatical connection with the rest of a sentence and can stand alone. Mild interjections are followed by commas; strong ones are followed by exclamation marks. Examples are *oh*, *wow, ouch,* and *oops*. These words are usually not found in formal writing.

> **Oh**, we're late for class.
> "**Hey!**" yelled Maggie. "That's my bike."

1i A note on words being more than one part of speech

A word may function as more than one part of speech. For example, the word *dust* can be a verb or a noun, depending on its role in a sentence.

> I **dust** my bedroom once a month, whether it needs it or not. (*verb*)
> The top of my refrigerator is covered with an inch of **dust**. (*noun*)

2 / Sentence Basics

A sentence is made up of two basic parts:

1 A **complete subject** — the simple subject and its modifiers;

2 A **predicate** — a verb and its modifiers, objects, and complements.

2a Subjects and their modifiers

The **simple subject** of a sentence is the noun or pronoun — the person, place, thing, or idea — that the sentence is about. The subject usually performs an action or is described by the sentence. The subject can be called the "who or what" word. To find the subject, ask yourself, "Who or what is doing something in this sentence?" or "Who or what is being described in this sentence?"

> The players ran onto the field.
> > Who is doing something in the sentence? The answer is *players*. That's who ran onto the field. So *players* is the subject of the sentence.

> The popcorn is overly greasy.
> > What is being described in this sentence? The answer is *popcorn*. That's what is overly greasy. So *popcorn* is the subject of the sentence.

Singular, plural, and compound subjects. A subject is singular or plural. Most plural subjects simply end in *s*.

> **Singular:** The **car** in front of us is speeding.
> **Plural:** The **cars** in front of us are speeding.

Some plural subjects are irregular:

> **Singular:** The **child** was crying.
> **Plural:** The **children** were crying.

(For more information on making nouns plural, see 27e, page 50.)

A **compound subject** is two or more subjects connected by a coordinating conjunction such as *and*. Compound subjects are usually plural. (See 6d, page 13.)

> **Compound:** The **car** and the **truck** in front of us are speeding.

Modifiers. The subject of a sentence may be accompanied by words, phrases, and clauses that modify it.

> A **very large truck** stalled on the bridge.
> > The subject, *truck*, is modified by the words *a very large*.
> **Several bunches of green grapes** fell onto the supermarket floor.
> > The subject, *bunches*, is modified by the word *several* and the prepositional phrase *of green grapes*.
> **The wallet that I lost** was never found.
> > The subject, *wallet*, is modified by the word *the* and the clause *that I lost*.

2b Verbs and their modifiers, complements, and objects

The **verb** of a sentence is the word or words — the main verb and any helping verbs — that express action or being. (See 1c, pages 2 – 3, for a more complete explanation of verbs.)

The verb and its modifiers. The verb of a sentence may be accompanied by words, phrases, and clauses that modify it.

> Traffic **moved slowly.**
>> The verb *moved* is modified by the adverb *slowly*.

> The boy **was waving at the airplane.**
>> The verb *was waving* is modified by the prepositional phrase *at the airplane*.

> I **sneezed when the instructor called on me.**
>> The verb *sneezed* is modified by the clause *when the instructor called on me*.

Compound verbs. A sentence may contain a compound verb — two or more verbs that have the same subject or subjects.

> The impatient customer **tapped** her fingers on the counter and **cleared** her throat.
>> The subject of this sentence, *customer*, did two things: *tapped* (her fingers) and *cleared* (her throat).

Subject complements. A subject complement follows a linking verb (such as *is, was, were, look, appear,* and *seem*) and provides information about the subject. A subject complement is either an adjective or a noun or pronoun. If it is an adjective, it describes the subject.

> This potato is **blue.**
>> The verb *is* links the subject, *potato*, to an adjective that describes it: *blue*.

Nouns and pronouns are naming words. When a subject complement is a noun or pronoun, it renames the subject, identifying it in some way.

> Cara's boyfriend is **a good mechanic.**
>> The verb *is* links the subject, *boyfriend*, to a noun that identifies it: (a good) *mechanic*.

Direct and indirect objects. A **direct object** is a noun or pronoun that receives the action of a verb.

> Mr. Duncan built a **bookcase.**
>> *Bookcase* is the direct object; it is what was built.

Sometimes a direct object is preceded by an indirect object. The **indirect object** is the noun or pronoun that tells *to whom* or *for whom* the action of the verb is done.

> Mr. Duncan built **me** a bookcase.
>> *Me* is the indirect object. It tells *for whom* the bookcase was built.

To find out if an object is direct or indirect, try mentally inserting the word *to* or *for* before it. If the word is an indirect object, the sentence will make sense.

> Mr. Duncan built [for] **me** a bookcase.

Object complements. An object complement follows a direct object and describes or renames it. An object complement is either an adjective or a noun or pronoun.

> My boss made me **angry.**
>> The direct object is *me* — that's who received the action of the verb, *made*. The object complement is *angry*, an adjective that describes the direct object.

> She called the puppy **Minnie.**
>> The direct object is *puppy* — that's what was called something. The object complement is *Minnie*, a proper noun that renames the direct object.

Object complements are found with verbs such as *appoint, call, consider, name,* and *make*.

3 / Phrases

A phrase is a word group that never functions as a complete sentence. It may lack a subject, a verb, or both. Phrases function as parts of speech — nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

3a   Prepositional phrases

A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition (a word such as *from, on,* and *to*) and ends with the object of the preposition. It may also include modifiers of the object.

Prepositional phrases function as adjectives or adverbs. (For a list of prepositions, see 1d, page 3.)

> The 1995 earthquake **in Kobe, Japan,** killed more than five thousand people **within minutes.**
>> The first prepositional phrase functions as an adjective; it modifies the noun

earthquake. The second prepositional phrase functions as an adverb; it modifies the verb *killed*.

3b Verbal phrases

A **verbal phrase** is a word group that contains one of the three types of verbals — infinitives, participles, and gerunds.

Infinitive phrases. An infinitive phrase is made up of *to* plus the base form of a verb (for example, *to go* or *to sing*) and any modifiers or objects. It can function as a noun, adjective, or adverb.

> **To delay** is dangerous.
> *To delay* functions as a noun, the subject of the sentence.

> I would like a place **to do my woodworking**.
> *To do my woodworking* functions as an adjective modifying the noun *place*.

> The old cat is happy **to sleep all day.**
> *To sleep all day* functions as an adverb modifying the adjective *happy*.

Participial phrases. A participial phrase is made up of a present participle (the *-ing* form of a verb) or a past participle (the *-ed* form of a regular verb or the past participle form of an irregular verb) plus accompanying words. A participial phrase always functions as an adjective.

> **Bobbing in the air,** the round white kite resembled a drunken cloud.
> The participial phrase modifies the noun *kite*.

> The instructor smiled, **delighted at the class's enthusiasm.**
> The participial phrase modifies the noun *instructor*.

> **Frozen with fear,** Rashid felt his heartbeat accelerate.
> The participial phrase *frozen with fear* describes the proper noun *Rashid*.

Gerund phrases. A gerund phrase — the *-ing* form of a verb plus any modifiers or objects — always functions as a noun. You can distinguish between a participial phrase that contains the *-ing* form of a verb and a gerund phrase because of their different functions — a participial phrase functions only as an adjective.

> **Spanking children** may cause them to become aggressive toward their peers.
> The gerund phrase serves as the subject of the sentence.

3c Absolute phrases

An **absolute phrase** usually includes a noun or pronoun followed by a participle or participial phrase. Absolute phrases modify an entire clause or sentence.

> **Dental fear being common,** some dentists advertise a gentle approach.
> The noun *fear* is followed by the participial phrase *being common*.

4 / Clauses

A **clause** is a group of words that has a subject and a verb. There are two types of clauses — independent and dependent.

4a Independent clauses

An **independent clause** is able to stand alone as a sentence.

> The breeze is chilly.

4b Dependent clauses

A **dependent clause** cannot stand alone as a sentence. It begins with a word that requires it to be connected to an independent clause.

> **Although** the sun is shining brightly.

The word *although* makes this clause dependent — it must be joined to an independent clause:

> **Although** the sun is shining brightly, the breeze is chilly.

There are three types of dependent clauses. They are named according to their function in a sentence.

Adjective clauses. An adjective clause, like an adjective, can modify a noun or a pronoun. It begins with a relative pronoun, such as *who*, or a relative adverb, such as *where*. Words that commonly begin adjective clauses are listed below.

Words That Begin Adjective Clauses

Relative pronouns:	who, whom, whose, which, that
Relative adverbs:	when, where, why

> We gave cereal samples to every customer **who came in today.**
> *Who* refers to *customer*, so the adjective clause modifies *customer*.

> There is a rumor **that our apartment building**

is going to be sold.
> *That* refers to *rumor*, so the adjective clause modifies *rumor*. The word *that* can be omitted from a dependent clause if the sentence remains clear without it: *There is a rumor our apartment building is going to be sold*.

adjective clauses may be essential to the meaning of the independent clause or nonessential. Nonessential material is set off by commas.

> The Shu family moved to Cherry Hill, **where the schools are considered excellent.**

Adverb clauses. An adverb clause, like an adverb, can modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. It begins with a subordinating conjunction, such as *because* or *if*. Adverb clauses generally explain when, where, why, how, under what condition, to what degree, or with what result.

Words That Begin Adverb Clauses

Subordinating conjunctions:			
after	before	so that	whenever
although	even if	though	where
as	even though	unless	wherever
as if	if	until	whether
because	since	when	while

> Tina decided to study more **after she saw her mid-semester grades.**
> The adverb clause modifies the verb *decided*, explaining when Tina decided to study more.

If an adverb clause begins a sentence, it is usually followed by a comma.

> **After she saw her mid-semester grades,** Tina decided to study more.

Noun clauses. Noun clauses begin with some of the same words that adjective clauses begin with. Unlike adjective clauses, however, noun clauses do not modify. A noun clause can function in the same ways that a single noun does, including as a subject, a subject complement, and a direct object. A noun clause may begin with a pronoun such as *who* or *whoever* or with a subordinating conjunction such as *when* or *where*. Words that commonly begin noun clauses are listed below.

Words That Begin Noun Clauses

Relative and related pronouns:	who, whoever, whom, whomever, whose, what, whatever, that, which, whichever
Subordinating conjunctions:	when, whenever, where, wherever, how, why, if, whether

> **What you see** is **What you get.**
> The first noun clause is the subject of the sentence; its verb is *is*. The second noun clause is the subject complement.

> The plastic spider on the wall tile surprises **whoever enters the shower.**
> The noun clause is the direct object of the verb *surprises*.

5 / Sentence Types

Sentences can be classified according to their purpose or their structure.

5a The four sentence types based on purpose

Declarative sentences. A declarative sentence makes a statement. Most sentences are declarative.

> The average human body is covered with fourteen to eighteen square feet of skin.

Interrogative sentences. An interrogative sentence asks a question.

> Where are we?

Imperative sentences. An imperative sentence gives a command, makes a request, or offers advice. Generally the subject, *you*, is omitted, but understood.

> Stay away from that closet.

Exclamatory sentences. An exclamatory sentence expresses sudden strong emotion. It is often an incomplete sentence.

> You've come back!
> What a game!

5b The four sentence types based on structure

Sentences can be divided into four types according to how many and what kind of clauses they contain. (See "Clauses," page 7.)

Simple sentences. A simple sentence is made

up of a single independent clause. (Below, subjects are *italicized*, and verbs are **boldfaced**.)

A *jet* **soared** through the darkening sky.
Several *customers* **complained** about the slow service.

A simple sentence may have a compound subject, a compound verb, or both.

Shorts and *T-shirts* **sway** on the clothesline.
The *children* **splashed** and **squealed** in the swimming pool
Every weekend, *Gary*, *Chet*, and *Rita* **go** to the movies, **eat** at a Chinese restaurant, and **dance** at a club.

Compound sentences. A compound sentence is made up of two or more independent clauses. The two clauses may be joined by a comma and a coordinating conjunction (such as *and*, *but*, or *so*) or by a semicolon.

Rose wants chili for dinner, **but** she forgot to buy beans.
This sentence is made up of two independent clauses joined by a comma and the coordinating conjunction *but*.

The plane landed safely; everyone felt relief.
The two independent clauses are joined by a semicolon.

(For a complete list and explanation of coordinating conjunctions, see lg, page 4.)

Complex sentences. A complex sentence includes one independent clause and at least one dependent one. When a dependent clause begins a sentence, it is generally followed by a comma. In the following sentence, the dependent clause is boldfaced:

Although nearby trees were blown down, our house escaped the tornado.
The first clause begins with the subordinating conjunction *although*, so it depends on the independent clause to finish the thought.

Compound-complex sentences. A compound-complex sentence has the characteristics of both a compound sentence and a complex sentence. Like the compound sentence, the compound-complex sentence includes at least two independent clauses. Like the complex sentence, it contains at least one dependent clause. In the following example, the dependent clause is boldfaced:

When the children's parents were out of town, the baby sitter had parties, and the children watched TV until midnight.
The two independent clauses are connected by the coordinating conjunction *and*. Together they could make a compound sentence: *The baby sitter had parties, and the children watched TV until midnight*. The dependent clause begins with the subordinating conjunction *when*. Combined with either of the two independent statements, it would make a complex sentence, for example: *When the children's parents were out of town, the baby-sitter had parties*.

6 / Verbs

6a   Verb tenses

The four principal parts of verbs. Each verb tense is formed with one of the four principal parts of verbs. Following are explanations of each of these verb parts.

1   Basic form. The basic form is the form in which verbs are listed in the dictionary (the infinitive form). It is used for the present tense for all subjects except third-person singular subjects.

I **ask** questions in class.

Third-person singular verbs are formed by adding *-s* to the basic form.

Dalila always **asks** questions in English class.

2   Past tense form. The past tense of regular verbs is formed by adding *-ed* or *-d* to the basic form.

We **asked** the instructor to postpone the test.
I **named** my son after my grandfather.

3   Present participle. The present participle is the *-ing* form of a verb. It is used in the progressive tenses (see page 11).

Mimi **is asking** the instructor something in the hallway.
I **am naming** my next child after my grandmother.

4   Past participle. The past participle of a regular verb is the same as its past tense form. The past participle is the form that is used with the helping verbs *have*, *has*, and *had* and with *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, or *were*.

Our lab instructors **have asked** us to study in groups.