odule: Written Expression Lecturer: Mrs. Bencharef. S vel: First year LMD Lesson 1: The Parts of Speech

aditional grammar classifies words based on eight parts of speech: the verb, the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the advert eposition, the conjunction, and the interjection.

ch part of speech explains not what the word is, but how the word is used. In fact, the same word can be a noun in one sentence and a adjective in the next.

amples:

- Books are made of ink, paper, and glue.
- this sentence, « books » is a noun, the subject of the sentence.
 - Deborah waits patiently while Bridget books the tickets.
- ere, « books » is a verb, and its subject is *Bridget*.
 - The town decided to build a new jail.
- this example, « jail » is a noun, which is the object of the infinitive phrase 'to build'.
 - The sheriff told us that if we did not leave town immediately he would **jail** us.

ere, « jail » is part of the compound verb « would jail ».

uns:

noun is a word used to name a person, animal, place, thing, and abstract idea. A noun can function in a sentence as a subject, a direct of indirect object, a subject complement, an object complement, an appositive, an adjective or an adverb.

pes of nouns :

ommon nouns: refer to general, unspecific categories of entities. They name any person, place or thing. e.g: man, table, country, hotel, oper nouns: name particular persons, places or things and begin with a capital letter. e.g.: Robert, France, Hilton Hotel, the Mississipp ps, Christmas, Islam, ...

encrete nouns: name anything (or anyone) that can be perceived through our physical senses: touch, sight, taste, hearing, or smell. t, wool, board, music,

ostract nouns: used for theoretical concepts. They name anything that cannot be perceived through the five physical senses. e.g. cou ır, wisdom, luck, ...

ollective nouns: name a group of persons, things, or animals. They are used as one unit. You need to recognize collective nouns in order untain subject-verb agreement. A collective noun is similar to a non-countable noun, and is roughly the opposite of a countable noun m, flock, public, police, class, crew, army, ...

ote: - When they try to refer to a group as a single unit, a collective noun takes a singular verb. e.g: Some cynics claim that the Ame nily **is** no longer functioning.

- When reffering to a group's members as individuals, the collective noun takes a plural verb. e.g. the Rogers family have been pa eir parks on their lawn.

pronoun is a word that is used in place of a noun or a noun phrase (called its antecedent) to avoid repeting it. It is also used to mak iting clearer, smoother, and less awkward.

the sentence, "Roberto feels that he can win the race," he is the pronoun, and Roberto is the antecedent. In the sentence, "Terry and **ow that they are best friends,"** they is the pronoun, and *Terry* and *Jim* are the noun antecedents.

ere are eight types of pronouns.

rsonal pronouns: they refer to specific persons or things (that have been already mentioned) and change their form to indicate pe mber, gender, and case. They can be subjective personal pronouns (I, you, she, he, it, we, you, they) used to act as subjects of a g: I do the washing; he does the cooking; they watch TV.

rsonal pronouns can work also as direct or indirect objects (objective personal pronouns) of a verb or after a preposition. They are u, her, him, it, us, you, them. e.g: I saw her yesterday. (direct object)

You told <u>us</u> news. (indirect object) She travelled only with <u>him</u>. (object of preposition)

ssessive pronouns: are forms of personal pronouns that show ownership or relation. They are: mine, yours, hers, his, its, ours, theirs

: The smallest gift is **mine**. (subject complement)

His is on the kitchen counter. (subject of the sentence)

flexive pronouns: are used to refer back to the subject of the sentence and stand as objects (of a verb or a preposition). They indicate

meone or something actcs upon itself. They are formed by combining personal pronouns with « self » or « selves »: myself, you

nself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

: She stretched **herself** out in the sofa. I wrote it *to* **myself**.

Reflexive pronouns are also used after nouns or pronouns to <u>emphasize</u> them. They are called **intensive pronouns**. **e.g**: The te

rself gave me her address.

emonstrative pronouns: they point to and identify a noun or a pronoun. They are: this, these, that, those. e.g.: This is my seat; they point to and identify a noun or a pronoun.

urs. (subjects)

this, that, these, and those can also be used as demostrative adjectives.

.g: This beach was quite empty last year.

terrogative pronouns: are used to ask questions. They are: who, whom, which, what, whose, whoever, whichever, whatever.

Who » acts as the <u>subject</u> of a verb, while « whom » acts as the <u>object.</u>

 $\mathbf{g} : \underline{\mathbf{Who}}$ wants to see the doctor first ? ($\underline{\mathbf{I}}$ want to see the doctor first)

Whom do you think we should invite? (we should invite our neighbbours)

elative pronouns: are used to introduce relative/ adjective clauses. They are: who, whom, that, whose, which, whomever, whom

nichever.

George, who is my best friend, is a teacher.

Indefinite pronouns: refer to identifiable but not specified persons or things.

ey do not indicate exactly who or what they are. The most common indefinite pronouns are : all, another, any, anybody, anyone, anytech, everybody, everyone, everything, few, many, much, little, no one, none, nobody, one, several, some, someone, somebody, either, ne

th, other, others, another.

g: - Many were invited to the lunch but only twelve showed up.

S

ciprocal pronouns: are used for an action or feeling that is reciprocated. The two most common reciprocal pronouns are "each other" ne another".

: - You can shout at **each other** as much as you like outside.

nd Tom don't talk to one another, there will be

ljectives :

adjective is a word that modifies nouns and pronouns. It defines and describes them.

- g: A <u>tall</u> boy stepped from the <u>curious</u> crowd. (description)
 - <u>That</u> boy is my brother. (pointing out)
 - <u>Twelve</u> children and <u>several</u> parents attended. (telling how many)

Kinds of Adjectives:

nalitative/ descriptive adjs: fat, heavy, square, yellow, golden, clever,

e **big, new, white** house.

emonstrative adjs: this, that, these, those. (they must be followed by a noun)

nese women gossip a lot.

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stributive adjs: each, every, either, neither, both.

sch/ every man carried a torch.

stantitative adjs: all numerals+ a, some, any, many, much, little, few, no, one.

schas seven apples.

cut you some bread.

sterrogative adjs: which, what, whose.

shose car is this?

shat papers do you read?

ssessive adjs: my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their.

se girls are playing with their dolls.

oper adjs/ adjs of nationality: Algerian, American, French, ...

ey refer also to geographical places, religions, holidays, dates, names of people or organizations, titles, ....

strbs:
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ere are several types of **verbs** to be studied: the action verb, the linking verb, and the helping verb.

- a/ An action verb tells what action (often a physical action) a subject is performing, has performed, or will perform.
- **e.g**: My father *delivers* packages to department stores each day.
- → Action verbs are classified by whether they must be followed by an **object** (a noun or pronoun that completes the action of the verbing who or what is acted upon)
- ese are called transitive verbs. So a transitive verb expresses action that has an object.
- : The staff manager **convoked** the engineer.
- tion verbs can also be intransitive. An intransitive verb expresses action that has no object.
- **: -** The students **sang**. The salesgirl **smiled**.
- A **linking verb** expresses a state of being or a condition rather than an action. The most common linking verbs are the forms of "to be' e, was, were, been, being, am) and appear, become, feel, grow, look, remain, seem, smell, sound, stay, taste, and turn.
- A verb often includes one or more **helping verbs**, sometimes called auxiliary verbs. The verb and its **helping verbs** form a <u>verb phrase</u> mmon helping verbs are *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *be*, *been*, *being*, *has*, *had*, *have*, *do*, *does*, *did*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *can*, *could*, *shall*, *shall*, and *would*.
- g: The comet has been approaching earth for two years. The day has finally arrived.
- verb can be used as a different part of speech according to its meaning in the sentence.
- g: We often study geography together. (verb) He has a large desk in his study. (noun)
- We finished our work in <u>study</u> hall. (adjective)
- He drew a **picture** of the sea. (noun) Can you **picture** me as an acrobat? (verb)
- Our **picture** window is cracked. (adj)

lverbs :

a adverb is a word that modifies (qualifies or limits) verbs, adjectives, other adverbs or groups of words. Adverbs most commonly merbs by telling how, when, where, or to what extent.

- **.g**: He reads **<u>carefully</u>**. (how) He reads **<u>late</u>**. (when) He reads **<u>everywhere</u>**. (where)
 - He reads widely. (to what extent)

adverbs sometimes modify adjectives and other adverbs.

- **g**: He is **truly** dedicated. / Rex is **very** happy.
 - He studies **terribly** hard. / Warren walks **too** quickly.

nds of Adverbs :

lverbs of manner: Tell how something happens: fast, slow, hard, well, quickly, kindly, happily, patiently,

They are usually placed after the main verb or after the object. e.g. He swims **fast**.

Iverbs of place: Tell <u>where</u> something happens: here, there, up, down, near, far, away, right, left, west, south, southwards, downs tside, inside, anywhere, everywhere, somewhere, nowhere, elsewhere, home.....

They are usually placed after the main verb or after the object.

e students are walking **home**. He threw the ball **downstairs**.

lverbs of time :Tell <u>when</u> something happens, and <u>for how long</u>: now, soon, still, today, yesterday, tomorrow, tonight, early, late, recorrently, after, before, afterwards, yet, then, just, immidiately, next, all day, not long,......

Adverbs of frequency: Tell **how often/ how many times** something happens: once, twice, often, rarely, never, ever, always, use casionally, seldom, sometimes, daily, everyday, monthly, annually, ...

ccasionally, culture interferes with business.

lverbs of certainty : Express **how certain or sure** we feel about an action or event : certainly, surely, obviously, definitly, probabledly,

They are placed before the main verb, but they come after 'to be', or between the auxiliary and the main verb.

e **definitly** left the house on October 1998. She is **probably** in Paris.

Iverbs of degree: Tell about <u>the intensity or degree</u> of an action, an adjective or another adverb: very, fairly, rather, too, totally nost, just, nearly, quite, hardly, much, enough, completely, partially, extremely, such, even, pretty, only ... \rightarrow He is **really** good.

Iverbs of opinion: Tell about the <u>speaker's opinion/point of view</u> about an action: frankly, ideally, officially, personally, obviously, honestly, seriously, ...

They are usually placed at the beginning and are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

rsonally, I can't do what she had done.

terrogative adverbs: Are used to ask questions: when, where, why, how.

They are placed at the beginning and are always followed by the main verb.

hen will she come? **Where** do you come from?

onjunctions :

conjunction connects words, phrases or clauses. There are three types of conjunctions: *coordinating conjunctions*, *corresponding conjunctions*.

1- **Coordinating conjunctions** are single connecting words that join words, phrases, or independent clauses of a sentence together. The en link similar grammatical parts of a sentence together (noun + noun/phrase + phrase / clause + clause) They are seven: *for, and, note, or, yet,* and *so.* (FANBOYS)

: - The boys and girls worked at the fair.

t's meet at the beach **or** in front of the hotel.

yould like to help you, **but** I *will be busy tonight.* \rightarrow **compound sentence**

2- Correlative conjunctions are pairs of connecting words that work together to coordinate two items. They are: both...and, either...

ither....nor, not only....but also, and whether....or.

g: -Both Henry and Henrietta are leaving the dance now. (2 nouns)

Subordinating conjunctions join an **independent clause** (which contains both a subject and a verb and can act as a complete sented a **dependent clause** (which also contains a subject and a verb, but is not a complete sentence).

g: - As the police got nearer, the crowd started throwing stones. (time) → complex sentence

dependent/subordinate clause independent/main clause

Prepositions

preposition is a word that shows the relationship between a noun or a pronoun and another word in the sentence. It may refer to directive, location, or ownership.

: The man swam *under* the bridge. (*Under* connects the idea of *swam* and *bridge*.)

terjections :

interjection is a word that expresses strong feeling or emotion. It comes at the beginning of the sentence. It is often followed by an elamation point (!) when the emotion is strong or a comma (,) when the emotion is mild.

w Bravo Dear Eek Eh Goodness gracious Gosh Hallelujah Hey Horrors Hurrah Hurray Mmm Oh Oh ops Ouch Phew Really Ugh Well Whoa Whoops Wow Yea Yeh Yes Yippe <u>s:</u> - Ouch! it bit me.

- Oh, are you the father?

Practice: Identify the part of speech of the **underlined** word in each of the following sentences:

Helen has a *yearly* membership at the local health club.

Helen contributes yearly.

Mike arrived late.

The <u>late</u> delivery cut down on sales in the supermarket.

The clown <u>chased</u> a dog around the <u>ring</u> and then fell flat on her face.

The geese **indolently** waddled across the intersection.

Yikes! I'm late for class.

Bruno's **shabby** thesaurus tumbled out of the <u>book</u> bag <u>when</u> the bus suddenly pulled out into traffic.

Mr. Frederick angrily **stamped** out the fire that the local <u>hooligans</u> had started on his verandah.

- Later that summer, she asked herself, "What was I thinking of?"
- **Although** she gave hundreds of zucchini away, the enormous mound left over frightened her.
- Everywhere she went, she talked about the prolific veggies.
- The manager **confidently** made <u>his</u> presentation to the board <u>of</u> directors.
- That suitcase is **hers**.
- **Everyone** in the room <u>cheered</u> when the <u>announcement</u> was made.
- The sun was shining as we **set** out for our <u>first</u> winter camping trip.
- **Small** children often insist that they can do it by themselves.
- <u>**Dust**</u> covered every <u>surface</u> in the <u>locked</u> bedroom.
- Exciting new products and effective marketing strategies will guarantee the company's success.

Module : Written ExpressionLevel : 1st year LMDLesson 2: Sentence patternsLecturer: Mrs. Bencharef. S

We have already mentioned that a sentence has two main parts: a subject and a predicate. Some sentences express the writer's thought by means of a subject and verb only: *He worked / she left*. Most sentences, however, have within the complete predicate one or more words to add to the meaning of the subject and predicate. These elements are called **complements**, and they function as **direct objects**, **indirect objects**, **subject complements**, **or object complements**.

Pattern 1: subject + intransitive verb

Dogs bark.

The baby is sleeping.

The glacier melted.

I can't sleep.

The thief escaped.

My uncle died.

I can't concentrate.

Everyone was waiting.

The roof collapsed.

A lot of people were screaming and crying.

An intransitive verb is a verb that <u>cannot have a direct object</u>. We use it to talk about simple events and actions: (go, arrive, sleep, fall, die, depart, happen, disappear, rain, snow, hesitate, occur, pause, cough, faint, grow, shiver, sneeze, leave, walk, ...)

- → while intransitive verbs are never followed by an object, they can be followed by modifiers such as *adverbs*, *adverbial clause* and *phrases* (also called *adjuncts*)
- I slept until noon.
- He died suddenly.
- The man runs along the beach every morning.
- \rightarrow They cannot be used in the passive.

<u>Pattern 2</u>: subject + transitive verb + direct object (D.O)

Children **need** <u>attention</u> (*what* ?) They **played** <u>soccer</u>. I **ate** <u>an apple</u>.

D.O

He kicked <u>a small ball</u>. I will cut <u>the grass</u>. The man had <u>no money</u>.

We **visited** <u>our aunt</u>. (*who/whom* ?) He **met** <u>a friend</u>.

<u>Transitive verbs</u> are followed by direct objects. A **direct object** names the receiver of the verb's action. (buy, sell, carry, fix, pre make, rent, offer, have, hold,.....)

- → Without a direct object, sentences containing transitive verbs don't make sense.
 - x I will bring.
 - $\sqrt{}$ I will bring the documents.

D.O

→ Here also for this pattern, modifiers (adverbs/ phrases) can be added.

e.g. He threw the ball quickly.

S V D.O ad

They bought a house two years ago.

S V D.O adjunct

NOTE: There are some verbs which can work as transitive or intransitive verbs (cook, draw, drink, drive, hurt, paint, study, meet, write, eat, read, ...)

- She **reads** his note. (trans) — She **reads** a lot. (intrans)

I speak English.
 I met him before.
 I met in Rome.

<u>Pattern 3:</u> subject + transitive verb + indirect object (I.O) + direct object (D.O)

They **should give** the baby more attention. \rightarrow They should give more attention to the baby.

.O D.O I.O

They bought her a new car.

They will send you an invitation.

I made *myself* hot chocolate.

The waiter poured Ann some water.

- → An indirect object names to whom or for whom the action is done.
- → The I.O receives the D.O. It benefits from the action.

The verbs which require both a direct and indirect objects: order, pick, save, throw, build, cook, cut, draw, read, write, keep, leave, offer, buy, sell, rent, borrow, make, teach, tell, ...)

<u>Pattern 4</u>: subject + linking/stative verb + subject complement (S.C)

Mr. Smith is a teacher. (noun)

S V S.C

Mr. Rodney was my fourth-grade teacher.

Dogs are social animals.

She **became** <u>a famous *scholar*</u>.

Pablo is intelligent. (adj)

S.C

Our neighbour's child looks lonely. / You look much better.

He seems ill.

He feels / felt sad.

The eggs smell rotten.

The pizza tasted good.

The train sounds loud.

Building the house **proves** <u>difficult</u> (for them).

The crowd **remains** <u>calm</u> during the speech.

The weather **turned** windy.

The dog is going blind.

Our son gets/ is getting older.

The days grew warmer.

express change in state

The <u>Linking verbs</u> are be, become, appear, seem, look, feel, taste, smell, sound, turn, prove, remain, grow, go, stay, get.

The subject complement completes the meaning of the subject by either describing it (when it is an adjective) or by renaming it (when it is a noun)

→ Many linking verbs can also function as action verbs. **Compare**:

Linking Action

He looks angry.

- The food **tastes** delicious.

The cake **smells** good.

I hope we **will stay** friends when we graduate.

She appeared quiet.

- They **stay** steady before the race.

- He **looks** at the man.
- They **taste** the food.
- He smells the cake.
- We always stay in a castle when we visit England.
- She **appeared** in the room.
- They **stay** at home because of rain.

→ When these verbs are followed by a noun/ noun phrase/ prepositional phrase and refer to action and movement, they are action verbs not linking.

Important: Be- become- seem are <u>always</u> and <u>only linking verbs</u> (they cannot be action verbs)

Pattern 5 : subject + transitive verb + direct object + object complement (O.C)

Our neighbours leave their dog alone. (adj)

The blanket kept the baby warm.

D.O O.C

Our neighbours **named** their dog <u>Rex</u>. (*noun*)

Mom **calls** me <u>her baby</u>.

The American people **elected** Mr. Biden <u>president</u>.

Your attitude makes me angry.

I consider him my idol.

We **should keep** our surroundings <u>clean</u>.

The thief **thought** himself rather lucky.

Students found the exam difficult.

Object complements complete the meaning of the direct object by either describing it (when they are adjectives) or renaming it (when they are nouns)

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pattern 6 : There/it + verb (be) + subject
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\begin{array}{c|cccc} \underline{It} & \underline{is} & \underline{nice} & \underline{to \; meet \; you.} \; (=To \; meet \; you \; is \; nice) \\ \underline{empty} & V \; S.C & S \\ \underline{word} & \end{array}
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It is always interesting to find out about your family history.

There is a good reason to rejoice.

There is <u>nothing to say.</u>

There are two shops in the village. (= two shops are in the village)

In this pattern, the subject came after the verb. The word "there" or "it" are not the real subjects; they are « empty » words that fill the position where you usually find the subject.

<u>lule</u>: Written Expression <u>Lecturer</u>: Mrs. BENCHAREF. S

son 3: Types of Sentences <u>Level</u>: 1st year LMD

ntences can be classified according to their structure: simple, compound, complex, and compound complex.

- 1- Simple sentence: contains only one full subject and only one predicate. It consists of one clause (independent) and takes the form of:
- A statement/ declarative sentence: - He lives in New York. - How old are you? A question:
- A request/ order: - Please close the door. - Don't walk on the grass.
- An exclamation: - What a terrible temper she has.
 - How lucky you are!
- → Simple sentences can be very short (e.g. John laughed.) or very long containing a compound subject, compound predicate and some phrases:

nashed avocado, minced garlic and olive oil should be blended thoroughly, whipped briefly, and served with warm tortillas.

subject predicate

- 2- Compound sentence: contains two or more independent clauses (each containing its subject and predicate). The independent clauses compound sentence can be joined by 3 different ways:
 - a- Punctuation alone (semicolon): - The weather was very bad; all classes were cancelled.

indep clause 1

indep clause 2

-Joe made the sugar cookies; Susan decorated them.

If the two independent clauses are very closely related and the reader has enough information to understand the relationship between them from the context alone, we can join the clauses using a semicolon without a conjunction.

Coordinating conjunctions: (FANBOYS)

- The weather was very bad, so all classes were cancelled. independent clause

independent clause

for and nor but or yet so}

- She did not cheat on the test, for it was not the right thing to do.
 - I will buy the red car, or I will lease the blue one.
 - I really want to go to work, **but** I am too sick to drive.
 - Kheith worried about the wounded bird, yet he did not want to be responsible for it. **(yet =but)**
 - She did not wake up early, **nor** did she attend class.
 - Rachel was not ready for marriage, nor was she ready for any other type of commitment.

(Important: When using "nor", we invert the subject and the verb of the clause.)

- Night came on, rain fell heavily, and we all get wet. (3 independent clauses)
- **Conjunctive adverbs:**
- The weather was very bad; **therefore**, all classes were cancelled. (*consequence*)
 - -He woke up early to be on time; **however**, he missed his flight. (*contrast*)
- -I like you a lot; in fact, we should be best friends. (*emphasis*)
- -Your dog got into my yard; in addition, he dug up my petunias. (addition)

Moreover, also, besides, furthermore, additionally = to continue the same point

Consequently, as a consequence, hence, therefore, thus, accordingly = to show cause and effect

However, nevertheless, nonetheless, on the contrary, otherwise, instead, on the other hand= to show contradictions

or example, for instance, namely, notably= to introduce examples

In fact, certainly, definitely, of course, indeed = to add emphasis

Similarly, likewise, alternatively= to show comparison

Conjunctive adverbs are transition words that are used to connect one clause to another. They are also used to show sequence contrast, cause and effect, and other relationships.

Important: When we use a conjunctive adverb to form a compound sentence, it is preceded by a semicolon and followed by a comma, as in the examples above.)

CAREFUL:

My dog enjoys being bathed but hates getting his nails trimmed. → this sentence contains only one clause even if there (compound) Predicate are 2 verbs. These two verbs (in the example) are

joined by the coordinating conj "but" to form a compound predicate and does not introduce a new clause. Remark also that there is no comma (,) before "but".

 \rightarrow So it is a **simple sentence**.

low consider the following sentence:

My dog enjoys being bathed, but he hates getting his nails trimmed. → this sentence contains 2 clauses because each one

indep clause 1

indep clause 2

is made of a subject + predicate.

Remark that after "but" there is the subject "he"+ the verb

"hates", so it is a new clause

The 2 clauses are joined by "but" (preceded by a comma)

 \rightarrow So it is a **compound sentence**.

Complex sentence: contains an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. A dependent clause contains a full subject and predicate but does not form a grammatically complete sentence= it cannot be a sentence by itself.

It usually begins with a specific word (subordinating conjunction or a relative pronoun/ adverb) that attaches the clause to an independent clause.

The <u>dependent clause</u> has <u>three</u> (3) types: 1) **adverbial** (subordinate) **clause**

- 2) relative (adjective) clause
- 3) noun clause.

a- Adverbial Clauses

→ An adverbial clause generally modifies the action of the main/independent clause. It is called "adverbial" because it functions as an adverb modifying the independent clause by giving information of time (when the main action was done?), of place (where the action was done?), reason, manner, etc.

The adverbial / subordinate clause begins with a **subordinating conjunction**. There are many types of subordinating conjunctions.

- Adverbial clause of of time: [when-whenever-while-after-before-as-as soon as-since-till-until-once]
 - I will go out (when I finish studying.) = When I finish studying . I will go out. independent dependent (adverbial clause of time) clause

*note: if the subordinate/adverbial clause starts a complex sentence, it is followed by a comma.

- As soon as I have finished, I will give you a call.
- I had a shower after I ran.
- Ronnie begins to sneeze whenever he opens the window.
- **Once** they saw the car coming, the birds flew away from the street.
- You must keep practising until/till you get it right.
- **Before** we go on vacation, we must make reservations.
- Jill slipped as she was getting off the bus.

*note: *before- after – since- till- until* are often <u>prepositions</u>. They are <u>conjunctions</u> when they are followed by a subject + verb

Consider:

- I can't see you before <u>lunch</u>. \rightarrow Here, "before" is a <u>preposition</u> because it is <u>followed</u> by a <u>noun</u> (lunch)
- I can't see you *before* I finish my lunch. → Here, "before" is a conjunction because it is followed by a clause (subject + predicate)
 - Adverbial clause of place: [where- wherever- anywhere- everywhere]
 - Wherever there is a beach, sun worshippers will gather.
 - I will follow you **everywhere** you go.
 - Adverbial clause of reason: [as-because-since-that-while]
 - All classes were cancelled because the weather was bad.
 - My parents were disappointed that I did not get the scholarship.
 - **As** you are out of money, think of getting a second job.
 - **Since** you did not finish revising, you have to stay here and work.

*note: remark that conjunctions like "as, since, .." can be also used to express time. So you have to be careful to the meaning of the whole sentence to decide which type is the adverbial clause.

• Adverbial clause of result: so+ adj + that so + adv + that such (a) + noun + that

- I am working so hard that I didn't notice the time.

dependent indep (adverbial clause of result) clause

- He ran **so** *quickly* **that** I could not catch him.
- It was **such a** *beautiful day* **that** we went for a walk.
- Adverbial clause of Concession/opposition: [although- even though- though- even if- in spite of the fact that- despite the fact that.]
 - **Though** Kate is clever, she is not doing well in class.
 - **Although** it rained a lot, they enjoyed their holidays.
- We are going out **even though** it is cold.
- I did not get the job in spite of the fact that I had the necessary qualifications.

Becareful: "in spite of/ despite of" introduce a phrase not a clause.

e.g. We went outside in spite of the rain. $\rightarrow 1$ clause \rightarrow simple sentence.

preposition noun

*note: Concession is when 2 ideas are opposite: the independent clause, which is the result, comes in the contrary of the idea (situation) expressed in the dependent clause.

- Adverbial clause of Contrast: [while- whereas]
 - Boys are encouraged to be adventurous **while** girls are always told to stay clean.
 - Canada is cold **whereas** Algeria is hot.

*By contrasting 2 clauses, we are comparing (not really opposing) between them.

- Adverbial clause of Purpose: [so that- in order that- so as]
 - I asked him to move so as I could see the screen.
 - She lived in England for six months so that she could perfect her English.
 - He took the course **in order that** he could get a better job.

*Becareful: "in order to" introduces a phrase not a clause.

e.g. He took the course in order to get a better job. → simple sentence (contains 1 clause)

Adverbial phrase

• Adverbial clause of Condition: [if-unless - only if-provided (that)-providing (that)- as long as-

in case- whether(or / or not)]

- **If** it rains, the ground gets muddy.
- Unless we leave now, we will be late. = If we do not leave now, we will be late.
- You can borrow my car **provided** (that) you promise not to drive fast.
- Whether we win or lose, we always enjoy playing. = Whether we win or not, we always enjoy playing.
- Bring your coat **in case** it rains.

*Compare: - We will buy some food in case Tom comes. (It is possible Tom will come. We will buy food anyway)

- We will buy some food if Tom comes. (we will not buy food until we are sure Tom will come)

- Adjective/ relative clauses

An adjective / relative dependent clause <u>modifies</u> a <u>noun before it</u> in a sentence. It is called a relative clause because it relates to that noun (called the **antecedent**). The relative clause is also referred to as "adjective clause" because it <u>functions</u> as an adjective as it describes, identifies, and gives further information about the noun before it (= the antecedent).

e.g. Children who are under twelve years must be accompanied by their parents. relative clause

- \rightarrow An adjective/relative clause is introduced by a <u>relative pronoun</u> (who-which-whom-whose-that) or a <u>relative adverb</u> (where-why-when-how) that are related to a noun or pronoun that precedes them.
- A woman lives next door.
 The woman is a doctor.
 The woman who lives next door is a doctor. (the 1st sentence was inserted in the 2nd) relative clause
- A *car* was parked over there.
- The car has been stolen. The car which/that was parked there has been stolen.
- I wanted to see a man.
 The man is well known.
 A widow is a woman.

 The man whom/who I wanted to see is well known. ("whom" is used to a direct object)
- The woman's husband is dead. A widow is a woman whose husband is dead.
- The *restaurant* where we had lunch is very expensive.
- I wanted to come back to the town where I was born.
- I remember the *day* when we first met.
- The season when I have the most fun is summer.
- Our fight is the *reason* why we are no more friends.
- The reason why he asked me to come is still unknown.

Where, when, why are relative adverbs

*Note that a relative clause may come in the $\underline{\text{middle}}$ of the independent clause or $\underline{\text{after}}$ it (at the end of the sentence). The most important is that it should come directly after(next to) the noun it modifies (the antecedent)

Punctuating relative clauses:

1- A <u>relative clause</u> that is <u>essential/necessary</u> to the meaning of the sentence (mainly to identify the antecedent) will not take commas.

The woman *who lives next door* is a doctor. (the antecedent, here, is "the woman":

restrictive clause

It is a very general common noun)

relative clause

I have met the woman who lives next door.

*A relative clause that is essential is called a restrictive/ defining clause. It tells us which specific person/thing (the antecedent) we are talking about. If it is removed, the meaning of the sentence will lack necessary details.

2- A <u>relative clause</u> that is <u>non- essential</u> will take <u>one</u> or <u>two</u> **commas** depending upon where it appears in the sentence.

Mrs. Anderson, who lives next door, is a doctor. (the antecedent, here, is "Mrs. Anderson":

non-restrictive relative clause

I have met Mrs. Anderson, who lives next door.

* A relative clause that is <u>not essential</u> is called a **non-restrictive/non-defining clause**. It just gives more information/details about the because this latter is already specific (identified). If it is removed, we lose some details, but the overall meaning of the sentence remains the s

Other examples:

Only those persons whose tickets have been punched may enter the gym.

Notice that if you take out the relative clause, we do not know which persons may enter the gym. The clause is essential= restrictive.

David works part-time at Burger king, which is only two blocks from school.

Notice that the relative clause simply provides extra information and therefore can be taken out without hurting the meaning of the sentence. is non-essential= non-restrictive.

c- Noun clauses

The noun clause is the third type of dependent clause. It is a clause used/functions as a <u>noun</u> in a sentence. Like a noun, it can be a **subject**, **subject complement** (predicate nominative), **direct object**, **indirect object** or **object of a preposition**. It begins with **that**, **Wh-words** (who, whoever, whose, which, what, whatever, where, when, ...) or if/ whether.

```
How it happened is still a mystery. independent clause dep clause (noun clause)
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Here, the clause "How it happened" is the <u>noun clause</u> (the dependent clause). It is the subject of the sentence. So, the independent clause is, fact, the entire sentence "How it happened is still a mystery."

S V S.C

Subject

Whoever wants the last piece of cake can have it.

How the boy behaved was not very polite.

That he should enjoy sport is understandable.

I don't know who stole my phone.

Tell me when you signed the contract.

I can't understand why you did such a thing. (remember that a direct object comes after a transitive Joanne remembered that it was Thursday. verb.

Tell me if he has signed the contract.

Ask him whether he has signed it.

Indirect object -{We will give whoever asks for free tickets.

Subject complement The decision was that the defendant was innocent. (remember that a subject complement comes after a "linking verb": be, become,...)

He became what he always wanted to be.

Object of preposition Everyone was pleased by how well the ceremony went. (here the noun clauses are objects

The movie was about why smoking is dangerous. of the prepositions "by, about")

4- Compound-complex sentence: contains at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.

- After he won, he called his mother; she was very surprised.

dep clause indep indep

dep clause indep in

- The man *who* made the offer is here, *but* he is too late.

- We'll have a discussion when the department manager comes, and we'll continue the lecture afterwards.

- All classes were cancelled *because* the weather was bad, *and* students were told to listen to the radio to find out *when* classes would begin again.

- Although it started to rain, we decided to continue walking, and we all get wet.

- Laura forgot her friend's birthday, so she sent her a card *when* she finally remembered.

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Lesson 4: Sentence errors

1. Sentence Fragments

A sentence fragment is a part of a sentence presented as if it was a complete sentence. That is, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark or exclamation point, but it does not include one of the essential elements required of a grammatically complete sentence, a subject and a verb. Usually, fragments occur unintentionally and are correctable.

incorrect Went to the store yesterday. (This is a fragment because the sentence misses a SUBJECT)

correct I went to the store yesterday.

incorrect I am upset that it raining every day. (Here the verb auxiliary is missing)

correct am upset that it is raining every day.

incorrect The man in that house. (Here there is no predicate)

correct The man in that house lives alone.

incorrect Before we go out. (this sentence misses a complete thought. It is only a dependent clause)

correct We have to lock the door before we go out.

The most common types of sentence fragments are: (1) phrases, (2) subordinate clauses, (3) appositives, and (4) parts of compound predicates capitalized and punctuated as if they were complete sentences.

You can eliminate sentence fragments in one of two ways: (1) join the fragment to a sentence nearby, or (2) develop the fragment itself into a complete sentence.

In joining fragment to a sentence, you may need a comma, a colon, a dash, or no punctuation at all. A dash and a colon indicate a more definite break in thought than a comma; a colon is expected before items in a series.

1. Phrase fragment

a- Join a phrase fragment to an existing sentence using punctuation.

incorrect He has many hobbies. Including stamp collecting, bird watching, and vegetable gardening.

correct	(revising with a comma)		
incorrect	We had a traditional thanksgiving dinner. Turkey with stuffing, cranberry sauce, mashed		
	potatoes, gravy, and pumpkin pie.		
correct	: turkey (revising with colons)		
incorrect	Dolores washes her hair twice a day. Much too often.		
correct	much (revising with a dash)		
incorrect	Tina would rather have tea. With lemon.		
correct	with (Revising without punctuation)		

b- Rewrit	e the phrase fragment as a sentence (giving it the components it lacks)
incorrect Wel	eft Rome and traveled northward to the picturesque little hill towns of Italy. Also to Florence and Venice
correct	We also went to
	nce I was done with the exams, I put my pen and paper down. Waiting for the teacher to collect papers.
correct	I <mark>was</mark> waiting
2- Subordina	te clause fragment
A suboro	linate clause contains both a subject and a predicate, but it is introduced by a subordinator,
either a sub	ordinating conjunction (after, because, when, as, if,) or a relative pronoun (that, which,
who, whom	, what) and therefore is not an independent complete sentence.
a- Join a subo	rdinate clause fragment to an existing sentence
incorrect	The president met with his staff every week. So that problems were rarely ignored.
correct	, so
incorrec	t Students dislike Mr. Jones. Because his classes can be tough.
correct	because
incorrec	et He arrived to the island of Madagascar. Where he had someone to meet.
correct	, where
b- Rewrite the	e phrase fragment as a sentence
incorre correct	The president met with his staff every week. So that problems were rarely ignored.
3- <mark>Apposi</mark>	tive fragment
An appos	tive phrase is a noun or noun equivalent that identifies or explains another noun.
incorrect	Marco read two good books during his vacation. Scott O'Dell's Island of the Blue Dolphins and N.
	Scott Momaday's House Made of Dawn.
correct	,,

incorrect John met his old primary school teacher. Mr. Shepard.

correct	(here the appositive has been made a
	part of the sentence uing a comma)
4- Parts of a co	mpound predicate
A compound	predicate is made up of two or more predicates that have the same subject.
e.g. <u>Sh</u> S	e <u>lives in Tokyo and speaks Japanese and English.</u> compound predicate
incorrect	wanted to buy both J.K. Rolling books . But had enough money to get only one.
correct	but
\rightarrow The	fragment has been made part of a compound predicate. No comma is used
incorrect	I wanted to buy both J.K. Rolling books . But had enough money to get only one.
correct	, but <mark>I</mark>
\rightarrow The	sentence has been rewritten as a compound sentence by converting the fragment
into	an independent clause with the addition of a subject. Here the comma is obligatory.
incorrect	Sophia went to the store. And looked for a book.
correct	and
0	r
	and cha

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<u>Lesson 4</u>: Sentence errors **2. Run-on sentences and comma splices**

A **run-on sentence** (also called **fused sentence**) is a sentence in which two or more independent clauses are written one after another with no punctuation.

incorrect Daniel was late we left without him.

Daniel was late therefore we left without him.

A **comma splice** happens when two independent clauses are <u>incorrectly joined by a comma</u> without a coordinating conjunction or by a comma and a conjunctive adverb.

incorrect Daniel was late, we left without him.

Daniel was late, therefore, we left without him.

- The ways to **correct** these two sentence errors are <u>the same</u>.
 - 1. Add a period (and make separate sentences): Daniel was late. We left without him.
 - 2. Add a semicolon: Daniel was late; we left without him.
 - 3. Add a coordinating conjunction: Daniel was late, so we left without him.
 - 4. Add a subordinating conjunction: Because Daniel was late, we left without him.

<u>Note</u>: In the sentence "Daniel was late, *therefore*, we left without him." the conjunctive adverb "therefore" is put between 2 commas (which is wrong= this what created the comma splice)

 \rightarrow It should be revised by <u>replacing</u> the comma by **a semicolon** = Daniel was late; *therefore*, we left without him.

Other examples:

incorrect { Run-on: I am thinking of skipping the English class it is really boring.

Comma splice: I am thinking of skipping the English class, it is really boring.

correction: I am thinking of skipping the English class. It is really boring.

correction: I am thinking of skipping the English class; it is really boring.

correction: I am thinking of skipping the English class, for it is really boring.

correction: I am thinking of skipping the English class because it is really boring.

inco	rrect Run-on:	It was raining I went out anyway.				
	Comma splice:	It was raining, I went out anyway.				
corre	ection: It was raining.	I went out anyway.				
correction: It was raining; I went out anyway.						
correction: It was raining, but I went out anyway.						
correction: Although it was raining, I went out anyway.						
		tence is run-on (RO) or comma splice (CS) then <u>correct</u> them using the previous sentence is correct write (Correct).				
1. .		doesn't like vegetables				
2. →	The fog came suddenly	y we could not find our way				
	Eli is a volunteer firefi	ghter, Ben is an event planner				
4. →	I had to buy new snea	kers, my mother threw my old pair				
	•	ational student faces many problems; for example, he has to cope with a new culture.				
→6.]	New York City is very	cosmopolitan there are people from many cultures and ethnic groups living there.				
7.]	Because of the rapid e	xpansion of human knowledge, it is difficult to keep encyclopedias current				
	We have spent all our	money, consequently, we won't be dining out tonight.				
9. ∴	John is always late to	work, but nobody seems to care				
10. ∃		ner is nice, however, high temperatures are dangerous for certain people				

Module: Written Expression

Lesson 4: Sentence errors

3. Faulty Parallelism (Unparalleled Structures)

Parallelism (**Parallel structure**) is an important element in English writing, especially when you are <u>listing</u>, <u>comparing</u> and <u>contrasting</u> items or ideas. Parallelism means that each item in a list or comparison follows the <u>same grammatical pattern</u>. If you are writing a list and the first item in your list is a noun, write all of the following items as nouns also. If the first item is an infinitive verb phrase, make all the others infinitive verb phrases; if it is a dependent clause, make all of the others dependent clauses. If you are making a comparison or contrast, make sure that the items you are comparing or contrasting are the same. **Parallelism** creates a sense of rhythm and balance within a sentence.

Examples

- She likes **novels**, short **stories**, and **poems**. (Parallel nouns)
- Our cat ran **across the lawn** and **under the hedge**. (Parallel phrases)
- His hobbies are **fishing**, **hiking**, and **painting**. (Parallel gerunds)
- John bikes to the park and Kevin plays football in the playground. (parallel clauses)

BUT

If you do not follow the rule of parallelism your writing will contain Faulty parallelism; an error in writing.

→ incorrect Kayo is beautiful, young, and a talented artist. (= not parallel)

adj adj noun phrase

correct Kayo is beautiful, young, and talented. (= parallel)

correct Kayo is a beautiful young woman and a talented artist.

→ incorrect Good students attend class, they do their homework, and practice speaking English.

correct Good students attend class, do their homework, and practice speaking English.

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→ incorrect Driving a car requires coordination, patience, and to have good eyesight.

correct Driving a car requires coordination, patience, and good eyesight.

When to use parallelism?

I- Use parallelism for coordinate elements:

When you connect ideas with and, but, or, and yet, write the connected ideas in parallel form.

- I like **football**, **basketball**, **handball**, **and tennis**. (all nouns)
- New born babies don't do much during their first few weeks; they eat, sleep, wet, and cry. (all verbs)
- Pesticides have harmful effects **on humans**, **on animal life**, **or on the environment**. (all phrases)
 - **>** The following sentences show errors in parallel form and how to fix them.

1. Noun phrase

incorrect The students like Ms. Gibb's class because of her friendly manner, she explains clearly, and her funny jokes.

correct The students like Ms. Gibb's class because of <u>her friendly manner</u>, <u>her clear explanations</u>, and <u>her funny jokes</u>. (= the noun phrases are parallel)

2. Prepositional phrases

incorrect My grandfather earned his living by fishing and he sold little wooden birds that he carved.

correct My grandfather earned his living by <u>fishing</u> and <u>by selling little wooden birds</u> that he carved.

(= the prepositional phrases are parallel)

3. Infinitives

incorrect The students like to listen and to speak but not writing in English.

correct The students like <u>to listen</u> and <u>to speak</u> but not <u>to write</u> in English. (= the infinitives are parallel)

4. Gerunds

incorrect The students like listening and speaking but not to write in English.

correct The students like <u>listening</u> and <u>speaking</u> but not <u>writing</u> in English. (= the gerunds are parallel)

5. Verbs

incorrect Will you fly, travel by train, or renting a car?

correct Will you <u>fly</u>, <u>travel</u> by train, or <u>rent</u> a car? (= the verbs are parallel)

6. Adjectives

incorrect My great-grandfather was uneducated but a wise person.

correct My great-grandfather was <u>uneducated</u> but <u>wise</u>. (= the adjectives are parallel)

II- Use parallelism for <u>correlative construction</u>:

When you connect ideas with **correlative conjunctions**: both.... and, not only...but also, either...or, neither...nor, and whetheror use parallel form after both parts of the paired conjunction.

My grandfather can speak **both** French **and** English fluently.

The following sentences show errors in parallel form and how to fix them.

1. Prepositional phrases

incorrect College students use computers *not only* for schoolwork *but* they *also* play games on them.

correct College students use computers *not only* for schoolwork *but also* for games. (= the phrases are parallel)

2. Adverbial clauses

incorrect He failed physics *either* because of too many missed labs *or* because he never opened the textbook.

correct He failed physics *either* because <u>he missed too many labs</u> *or* because <u>he never opened the textbook</u>.

(= the clauses are parallel)

(– the clauses are paran

3. Adverbs

incorrect Emails allow you to communicate *both* quickly *and* without paying a lot of money.

correct Emails allow you to communicate *both* <u>quickly</u> and <u>economically</u>. (= the adverbs here are parallel)

4. Verbs

incorrect When I first arrived at college, I was so homesick that I could *neither* sleep *nor* I didn't want to eat.

correct When I first arrived at college, I was so homesick that I could *neither* <u>sleep</u> *nor* <u>eat</u>. (= the verbs are parallel)

5. Infinitive phrase

incorrect I couldn't decide whether to stay at school or maybe I should return home.

correct I couldn't decide whether to stay at school or to return home. (the infinitives are parallel)

III- Use parallelism for compared and contrasted ideas:

Use parallel structure in comparisons containing than or as.

incorrect I wanted a better explanation rather than to remain confused.

correct I wanted to receive a better explanation rather than to remain confused. (here the infinitive forms are parallel)

incorrect His raw intelligence was **as** important **as** working hard.

correct His raw intelligence was **as** important **as** his hard work. (here the nouns are parallel)

4- Choppy Writing

Choppy writing is writing in which there are a lot of short sentences. **Referring to another definition, choppy sentences** are sentences that are too short and often repeat the same words. Too many short simple sentences can make writing appear unsophisticated and ideas seem disconnected.

Writing too many of them together is not good style. Readers have to work harder to understand the relationship among the ideas because there are no connecting words to help them.

Solutions to improve choppy writing

1.Show logical connection between ideas: by using words that show cause and effect such as *because*, *since*, and *so*, and words that show contrast such as *but*, *yet* and *although*.

Choppy: She took dance classes. She had no natural grace or sense of rhythm. She eventually gave up the idea of becoming a dancer.

Revised: She took dance classes, **but** she had no natural grace or sense of rhythm, **so** she eventually gave up the idea of becoming a dancer.

2. **Join multiple actions by the same agent into one sentence:** by using subordination (phrases beginning with *if, when, after, as,* etc.) and coordination (sentences and phrases joined by conjunctions like *and, but, so,* etc.).

Choppy: Bears emerge from hibernation in the spring. They wander through wetlands. They feed mainly on grasses.

Revised: When bears emerge from hibernation in the spring, they wander through wetlands and feed mainly on grasses.

3. Use appositives: (phrases that add information about a noun). Choppy: Jesse Ventura has denied an interest in running for the senate. Ventura is the former governor of Minnesota.

Revised: Jesse Ventura, the former governor of Minnesota, has denied an interest in running for the senate.

4. **Integrate minor details:** You don't need a new sentence for each piece of information. **Choppy:** The boy asked his father a question. The boy is five years old. The question was about death.

Revised: The five-year-old boy asked his father a question about death.

Practice1: Edit these choppy sentences one or two sentences so they are more interesting to read.

- 1. Vegetables are good for you. Vegetables taste good. Vegetables are easy to prepare.
- 2. I like movies. I go to movies every weekend. I like action movies best.

- 3. Elephants are big. They live in Africa and Asia. They eat a lot of food.
- 4. Phil is a thrill seeker. He enjoys skydiving and bungee jumping. He goes every chance he gets.
- 5. I hate housework. Housework is very boring. It takes too much time. I especially dislike mopping the floor and ironing.

Practice2: Improve choppy writing in the following paragraph by combining sentences.

George Washington and Abraham Lincoln were two famous U.S. presidents. Their lives were very different. Washington's parents were rich landowners. Lincoln's family was poor. Washington and Lincoln had similar ideas about slavery. Washington had owned slaves. He gave his slaves their freedom. Lincoln freed all slaves. He issued the Emancipation Proclamation on January 1st, 1863. Washington was known for his honesty. Lincoln's nickname was "Honest Abe".

✓ To Correct:

- Combine sentences, coordinating equal ideas and subordinating secondary information.
- The similarities and differences discussed in this paragraph are more or less equal in content. It is best to connect the ideas in the previous paragraph using coordinating words such as **however**, and, and **but**.
- They were famous presidents. **However**, their lives were different.
- Washington's parents were rich. **But** Lincoln's family was poor.
- Washington freed his own slaves. And Lincoln freed all slaves.
- Other sentences express secondary information. It is best to subordinate these ideas by writing dependent clauses beginning with 'who and whom'
- Washington freed his slaves. **Who** He had owned slaves.
- Lincoln freed all slaves. **When** He issued the Emancipation Proclamation.

Revised paragraph

George Washington and Abraham Lincoln were two famous U.S. presidents; however, their lives were very different. Washington's parents were rich landowners. Lincoln's family was poor, but Washington and Lincoln had similar ideas about slavery. Washington who had owned slaves gave his slaves their freedom, and Lincoln freed all slaves when he issued the Emancipation Proclamation on January 1st, 1863. Washington was known for his honesty, and Lincoln's nickname was "Honest Abe".

<u>Practice: The following paragraphs contain choppy writing. Improve it by combining sentences. There is more than one way to make the revisions.</u>

- 1- Washington and Lincoln were leaders during times of crisis. Washington was the top general of the army during the Revolutionary War. It began in 1775. Lincoln was president during the U.S. Civil War. It began in 1861.
- 2- The young country was in danger of breaking apart after these two wars. It needed a strong leader to stay united. Washington was a strong president. Lincoln was a strong president. Both men believed in keeping the country together. Both men worked very hard to keep the country from splitting apart.
- 3- America finally won its independence from England. Washignton helped write the U.S. Constitution. The constitution made the federal government strong. The Civil War ended in 1865. Lincoln's strong leadership helped reunite the North and the South.