

# Final Term Material

## Pronoun and its Types


A pronoun is a word that replaces a noun in a sentence.

For example, "Jamil ran so fast, you'd think his life was on the line."

The pronoun "his" saved us from repeating the name Jeremy again.

Common pronouns include I, me, mine, she, he, it, we, and us.

### Types of pronoun

 <b>ENGLISH PRONOUNS</b>					
	Subject Pronouns	Object Pronouns	Possessive Adjectives	Possessive Pronouns	Reflexive Pronouns
1st person	I	Me	My	Mine	Myself
2nd person	You	You	Your	Yours	Yourself
3rd person (male)	He	Him	His	His	Himself
3rd person (female)	She	Her	Her	Hers	Herself
3rd thing	It	It	Its	(not used)	Itself
1st person (plural)	We	Us	Our	Ours	Ourselves
2nd person (plural)	You	You	Your	Yours	Yourselves
3rd person & thing (plural)	They	Them	Their	Theirs	Themselves

## Cases of a pronoun

Pronouns have three cases, which indicates how that pronoun is related to the words that it is used with. The three cases are

- a) Nominative, (The nominative case is used when the pronoun is the subject of the sentence such as; I, you, he/she, it, we/they)
- b) possessive, (It describes possession of person such as; mine, yours, his, her, its, our/ours, their/theirs)
- c) and objective (it denotes the objective condition of a person such as; me, your, his, her, it, us, them)

## Antecedent pronoun

An antecedent is a noun or noun phrase that you mention at the beginning of a sentence or story and later replace with a pronoun.

Example: My family drives me nuts, but I love them. The sign was too far away for Hameed to read it. Sarah said she is almost finished with the application.

## Relative pronoun

Relative pronouns are used to connect relative clauses to independent clauses. Relative pronouns include (that, what, which, who, and whom). Traditionally, who refers to people, and which and that refer to animals or things.

**Examples:** The woman who called earlier didn't leave a message.

All the dogs that got adopted today will be loved.

My car , which is nearly twenty years old, still runs well.

## Demonstrative Pronouns

That, this, these and those are demonstrative pronouns. They take the place of a noun or noun phrase that has already been mentioned.

This is used for singular items that are nearby. These is used for multiple items that are nearby. The distance can be physical or metaphorical.

Here is a letter with no return address. Who could have sent this? What a fantastic idea! This is the best thing I've heard all day. If you think gardenias smell nice, try smelling these.

### **Indefinite Pronouns**

Indefinite pronouns are used when you need to refer to a person or thing that doesn't need to be specifically identified. Some common indefinite pronouns are one, other, none, some, anybody, everybody, and no one.

**Examples:** Everybody was late to work because of the traffic jam.

It matters more to some than others.

Nobody knows the trouble I've seen.

### **Interrogative Pronouns**

Interrogative pronouns are used in questions. The interrogative pronouns are who, what, which, and whose.

**Examples:** Who wants a bag of jelly beans?

What is your name?

Which movie do you want to watch?

Whose jacket is this?

### **Reciprocal Pronouns**

Reciprocal pronouns are used for actions or feelings that are reciprocated. The reciprocal pronouns are each other and one another.

**Examples:**

- They like one another.
- They talk to each other like they're babies.

## Adverbs

An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. For example:

- She swims quickly.  
(Here, the adverb quickly modifies the verb swims.)
- She is an extremely quick swimmer.  
(Here, the adverb extremely modifies the adjective quick.)
- She swims extremely quickly.  
(Here, the adverb extremely modifies the adverb quickly.)

When an adverb modifies a verb, it usually tells us how, when, where, how often, and how much the action is performed. Here are some examples of adverbs modifying verbs:

- How: He ran quickly.
- When: He ran yesterday.
- Where: He ran here.
- How often: He ran daily.
- How much: He ran fastest.

In the examples above, every adverb is a single word, but an adverb can be made up of more than one word. For example:

- How: He ran at 10 miles per hour.
- When: He ran when the police arrived.
- Where: He ran to the shops.
- How often: He ran every day.
- How much: He ran quicker than me.

### Adverbs modify verbs

Previously, you may have been told that adverbs end -ly and modify verbs. That is all true, but adverbs do far more than that description suggests.

Adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs. Although many adverbs end -ly, lots do not (e.g., fast, never, well, very, most, least, more, less, now, far, and there).

## Adverbs

Adverbs tell us **how**, **when**, **where**, **how often**, and **how much**.

### how



- Talk **quietly**.
- Sarah drove **slowly**.
- She examined the box **carefully**.

### when



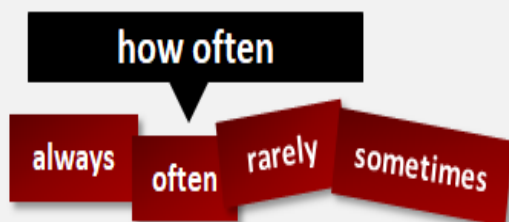
- Leave **now**.
- Post the parcel **today**.
- Tony left **yesterday**.

### where



- Bring it **here**.
- I used to live **there**.
- The issues are happening **overseas**.

### how often



- You **always** complain.
- Check your work **often**.
- Toby **sometimes** lies.

### how much



- The rip is **extremely** noticeable.
- Don't work **too** hard.
- It is **entirely** inappropriate!



Here are some examples of adverbs modifying verbs:

- Anita placed the vase **carefully** on the shelf.  
(The word carefully is an adverb. It shows how the vase was placed.)
- Tara walks **gracefully**.  
(The word gracefully is an adverb. It modifies the verb to walk.)
- He runs **fast**.  
(The word fast is an adverb. It modifies the verb to run.)
- You can set your watch by him. He **always** leaves at 5 o'clock.  
(The word always is an adverb. It modifies the verb to leave.)
- The dinner guests arrived **early**.  
(Here, early modifies to arrive.)
- She **sometimes** helps us.  
(Here, sometimes modifies to help.)
- Will you come **quietly**, or do I have to use earplugs? (Comedian Spike Milligan)  
(Here, quietly modifies to come.)
- I am the only person in the world I should like to know **thoroughly**. (Oscar Wilde)  
(Here, thoroughly modifies to know.)

### **Adverbs Modifying Adjectives**

If you examine the word adverb, you could be forgiven for thinking adverbs only modify verbs (i.e., "add" to "verbs"), but adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs. Here are some examples of adverbs modifying adjectives:

- The **horridly** grotesque gargoyle was undamaged by the debris.  
(The adverb horridly modifies the adjective grotesque.)

- Peter had an **extremely** ashen face.

(The adverb extremely modifies the adjective ashen.)

**Badly** trained dogs that fail the test will become pets.

(The adverb badly modifies the adjective trained.)

(Note: The adjective trained is an adjective formed from the verb to train. It is called a participle.)

She wore a **beautifully** designed dress.

(The adverb beautifully modifies the adjective designed.)

### Adverbs Modifying Adverbs

Here are some examples of adverbs modifying adverbs:

- Peter Jackson finished his assignment **remarkably quickly**.

(The adverb quickly modifies the verb to finish. The adverb remarkably modifies the adverb quickly.)

- We're showing kids a world that is **very scantily** populated with women and female characters. They should see female characters taking up half the planet, which we do.  
(Actress Geena Davis)

(The adverb scantily modifies the adjective populated. The adverb very modifies the adverb scantily.)

### Usages of Adverbs

When an adverb modifies a verb, it can often be categorized as one of the following:

Type	Examples
Adverb of Manner (how)	<p>An adverb of manner tells us how an action occurs.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The lion crawled <b>stealthily</b>.</li> <li>• Will you come <b>quietly</b>, or do I have to use earplugs? (Comedian Spike Milligan)</li> </ul>

	(NB: Lots of adverbs of manner end -ly.)
Adverb of Time (when and how often)	<p>An adverb of time tells us when an action occurs or how often.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I tell him <b>daily</b>.</li> <li>• What you plant <b>now</b>, you will harvest <b>later</b>. (Author Og Mandino)</li> </ul> <p>(NB: Adverbs of time that tell us how often something occurs (e.g., always, often, sometimes) are also known as "adverbs of frequency.")</p>
Adverb of Place (where)	<p>An adverb of place tells us where an action occurs.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I did not put it <b>there</b>.</li> <li>• Poetry surrounds us <b>everywhere</b>, but putting it on paper is, alas, not so easy as looking at it. (Artist Vincent Van Gogh)</li> </ul>
Adverb of Degree (aka Adverb of Comparison) (how much)	<p>An adverb of degree tells us to what degree an action occurs.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• He works <b>smarter</b>.</li> <li>• Doubters make me work <b>harder</b> to prove them wrong. (Businessman Derek Jeter)</li> </ul>

These are the main four categories. We'll discuss the others in a bit. Don't forget that adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs.

- To expect the unexpected shows a **thoroughly** modern intellect. (Playwright Oscar Wilde)  
(The adverb thoroughly modifies the adjective modern.)
- If a thing is worth doing, it is worth doing **very slowly**. (Burlesque entertainer Gypsy Rose Lee)



(The adverb very modifies the adverb slowly.)

### Multiword usages of Adverbs

In all the examples above, the adverbs have been single words, but multi-word adverbs are common too. Adverbs commonly come as phrases (i.e., two or more words) or clauses (i.e., two or more words containing a subject and a verb). Below are some examples of multi-word adverbs. This list also includes adverbs of condition, adverbs of concession, and adverbs of reason.

Type	Examples
Adverb of Manner	<p>An adverb of manner often starts with a <u>preposition</u> (e.g., in, with) or one of the following: as, like, or the way. (These are called <u>subordinating conjunctions</u>.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Money speaks, but it speaks <b>with a male voice</b>. (Author Andrea Dworkin) (This is called a prepositional phrase. It's also an adverbial phrase.)</li> <li>• People who say they sleep <b>like a baby does</b> usually don't have one. (Psychologist Leo J. Burke)</li> </ul>
Adverb of Time	<p>An adverb of time often starts with a preposition or one of the following subordinating conjunctions: after, as, as long as, as soon as, before, no sooner than, since, until, when, or while.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A company like Gucci can lose millions <b>in a second</b>. (Gucci CEO Marco Bizzarri)</li> <li>• <b>After the game has finished</b>, the king and pawn go into the same box. (Italian proverb)</li> </ul>
Adverb of Place	<p>An adverb of place often starts with a preposition or one of the</p>

	<p>following subordinating conjunctions: anywhere, everywhere, where, or wherever.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Opera is when a guy gets stabbed in the back and, instead of bleeding, he sings. (Ed Gardner)</li> <li>• Some cause happiness wherever they go; others whenever they go. (Playwright Oscar Wilde)</li> </ul>
Adverb of Degree (aka Adverb of Comparison)	<p>An adverb of degree often starts with one of the following subordinating conjunctions: than, as...as, so...as, or the...the.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nothing is so contagious as enthusiasm. (Poet Samuel Taylor Coleridge)</li> <li>• Be what you are. This is the first step toward becoming better than you are. (Writer Julius Charles Hare)</li> </ul> <p><u><a href="#">Read more about comparatives of adverbs (like more cleverly).</a></u></p>
Adverbs of Condition	<p>An adverb of condition tells us the condition needed before the main idea comes into effect. An adverb of condition often starts with if or unless.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• If the facts don't fit the theory, change the facts. (Theoretical physicist Albert Einstein)</li> <li>• Age doesn't matter, unless you're a cheese. (Filmmaker Luis Bunuel)</li> </ul>
Adverbs of Concession	<p>An adverb of concession contrasts with the main idea. An adverb of concession often starts with a subordinating conjunction like though, although, even though, while, whereas, or even if.</p> <p>□ Although golf was originally restricted to wealthy, overweight Protestants, today it's open to anybody who owns hideous clothing.</p>

	<p>(Comedian Dave Barry)</p> <p>□ A loud voice cannot compete with a clear voice, even if it's a whisper. (Writer Barry Neil Kaufman)</p>
Adverbs of Reason	<p>An adverb of reason gives a reason for the main idea. An adverb of reason usually starts with a subordinating conjunction like as, because, given, or since.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I don't have a bank account because I don't know my mother's maiden name. (Comedian Paula Poundstone)</li> <li>• Since we cannot change reality, let us change the eyes which see reality. (Greek author Nikos Kazantzakis)</li> </ul>

## Phrase

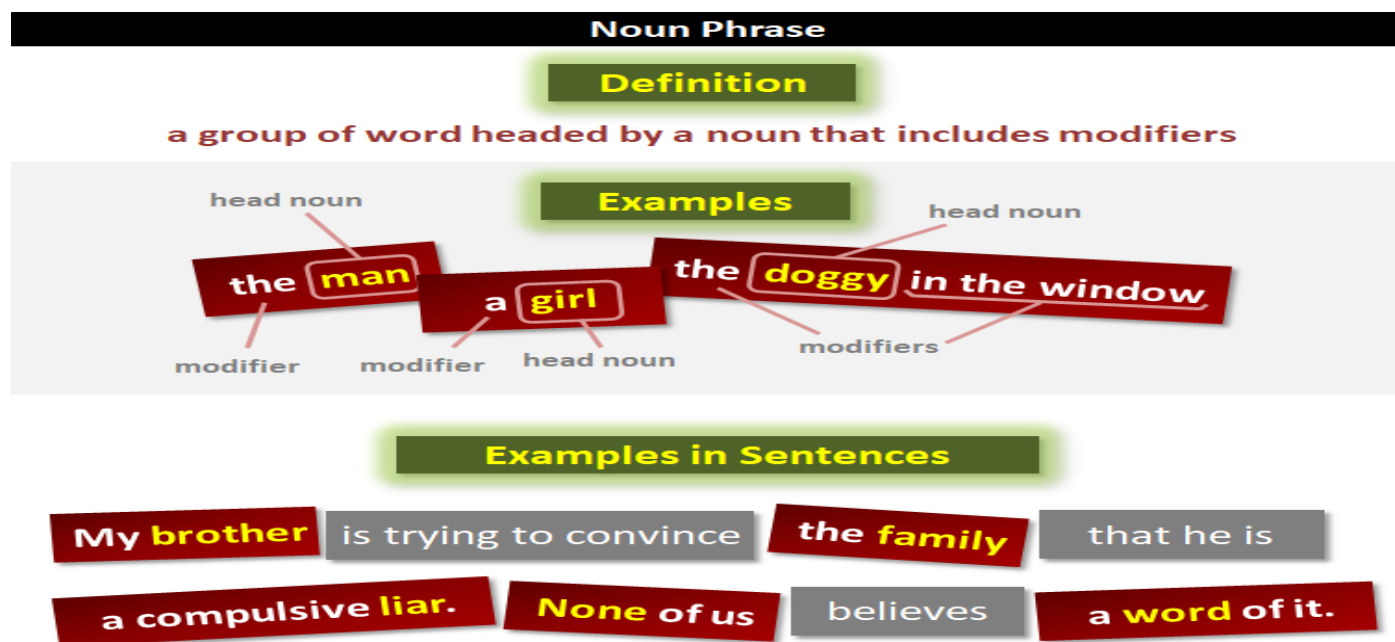
**Definition:** A phrase is a group of two or more words functioning as a meaningful unit within a sentence or clause.

### Types of phrases

Eight common types of phrases are: noun, verb, gerund, infinitive, appositive, participial, prepositional, and absolute.

#### Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is a group of two or more words that is headed by a noun (a person, place, or thing) that includes modifiers (e.g., 'the,' 'a,' 'of them,' 'with her').



A noun phrase plays the role of a noun. In a noun phrase, the modifiers can come before or after the noun.

Note: A noun phrase can also be headed by a pronoun. For example:

- the **dog** with fleas
- the **one** with fleas

(This is a noun phrase headed by a pronoun. In the infographic, "None of us" is another example.)

### Examples of Noun Phrases

In normal writing, nouns nearly always feature in noun phrases. It is rare to find a noun functioning by itself (i.e., without any modifiers) in a sentence.

- **Man** proposes, but **God** disposes. (German canon Thomas à Kempis)  
 (This example features two nouns without any modifiers. That's rare. In other words, there are no noun phrases in this example.)

In real life, it is far more common for nouns to feature in noun phrases, i.e., to be accompanied by modifiers. Here is a list of noun phrases. In this list, every noun phrase consists of a head noun (highlighted) and at least one modifier.

- People: the soldier, my cousin, dopey Alan, the lawyer with the big nose
- Animals: that aardvark, one rat, a shark, funny Mickey
- Places: the house in the corner, inner London, dirty factory, no shelter
- Things: this table, our London Bridge, the sharp chisel, that nitrogen, last month, an inch, her cooking
- Ideas: utter confusion, some kindness, your faith, the Theory of Relativity, a joy

So, a noun with any sort of modifier (even it's just "a" or "the") is a noun phrase.

When a noun phrase is the subject of a verb, ensure subject-verb agreement with the head noun.

- The Spitfire's 9-yard belt of bullets give us the term "the full nine yards." ✗  
(The head noun in this noun phrase is "belt." All the other words in the noun phrase are modifiers. As "belt" is singular, the verb "give" is wrong. It should be "gives.")
- The Spitfire's 9-yard belt of bullets gives us the term "the full nine yards." ✓

Do not be tricked into agreeing the verb with the nearest noun (here, "bullets"). When a noun phrase is the subject of a verb, the head noun governs the verb.

Adverbial Phrase

**Adverbial Phrase**


**Definition**


a group of words that functions as an adverb

**Example**

We will escape

in the morning.






adverbial phrase

**Adverbial phrases contrast with normal adverbs and adverbial clauses...**

We will escape

later.




normal adverb

We will escape

when

the sun

rises.



adverbial clause

### When (Adverbial Phrase of Time)

An adverbial phrase of time states when something happens or how often. For example:

- I'll do it **in a minute**.
- **After the game**, the king and pawn go into the same box. (Italian Proverb)
- Do not wait for the last judgment. It takes place **every day**. (Albert Camus)

### Where (Adverbial Phrase of Place)

An adverbial phrase of place states where something happens. For example:

- I used to work in a fire-hydrant factory. You couldn't park **anywhere near the place**. (Steven Wright)
- Opera is when a guy gets stabbed **in the back** and, instead of bleeding, he sings. (Ed Gardner)

- How (Adverbial Phrase of Manner)

An adverbial phrase of manner states how something is done. For example:

- He would always talk **with a nationalistic tone**.
- He sings **in a low register**.
- People who say they sleep **like a baby** usually don't have one. (Leo J. Burke)

### Why (Adverbial Phrase of Reason)

An adverbial phrase of reason states why something is done. For example:

- He went to the island **to find gold**.
- He plays up **to impress his class mates**.
- We tell ourselves stories **in order to live**. (Author Joan Didion)

### The Format of Adverbial Phrases

Here are three common formats for adverbial phrases:

- Prepositional phrase. A prepositional phrase is headed by a **preposition** (e.g., "in," "on," "near," "by," "with"). For example:

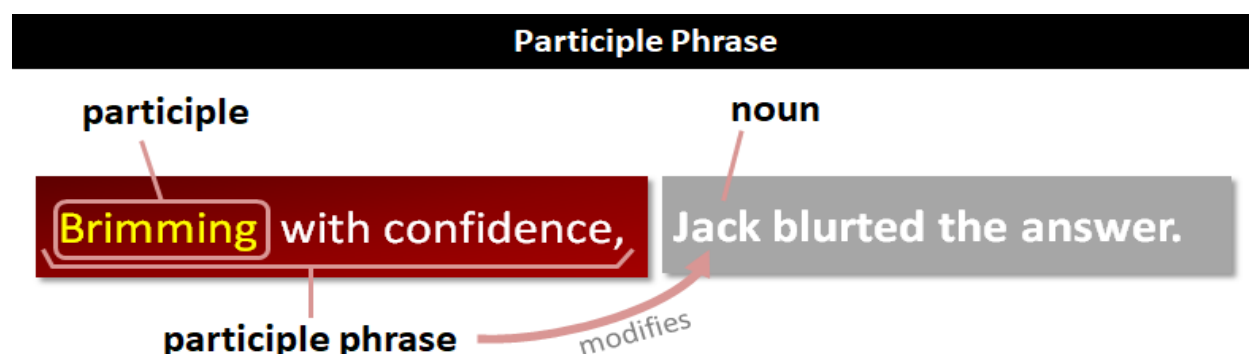
- He was standing **in the corner**.
- She is winning **without trying**.
- Infinitive phrase. An infinitive phrase is headed by an **infinitive verb** (e.g., "to play," "to jump"). For example:
  - She went to Florence **to paint**.
  - Fill in this form **to join our club**.
- An adverb with an intensifier. An adverb with an **intensifier** (e.g., "very," "extremely," "really") is also an adverbial phrase. For example:
  - He answered you **very quickly**.
  - She danced **extremely beautifully**.

There are, of course, other formats. For example:

- We arrived **a day later than expected**.
- I paid him **every week**.

## Participial Phrase

A participle phrase is an **adjective phrase** headed by a **participle**.



### Examples of Participle Phrases

In each of these examples, the participle phrase is shaded and the participle is in bold.

(Remember that participle phrases function as adjectives.)

- **Peering over the top of his glasses**, her tutor shook his head.  
(The participle phrase describes "her tutor.")
- **Cracked from top to bottom**, the mirror was now ruined.

(The participle phrase describes "the mirror.")

- Look at the panther **climbing the tree**.

(The participle phrase describes "the panther.")

- Sebastian reached across for the pipe, **signalling his agreement with the chief's proposal**.

(The participle phrase describes "Sebastian.")

### A Participle Phrase Can Start with a Past Participle or a Present Participle

Here is a quick revision about **participles**. Remember that a participle is a verb form that can be used as an adjective. There are two types of participles:

- **Present Participles** (ending "-ing"). Here is an example of one as an adjective:
  - The rising tide
- **Past Participles** (usually ending "-ed," "-d," "-t," "-en," or "-n"). Here is an example of one as an adjective:
  - The risen cake

### More Examples of Participle Phrases

In each row in the table below, there is an example of a present participle being used as an adjective, a past participle being used as an adjective, and then one of those participles being used in a participle phrase. (As before, the participle phrases are shaded, and the participles are in bold.)

The Verb	The Present Participle	The Past Participle	Example of a Participle Phrase
To rise	the rising sun	the risen sun	<b>Rising out of the sea in front of us</b> , the sun started to warm our faces.



To print	the printing document	the printed document	Printed on the very first press, the document was extremely valuable.
To break	the breaking news	the broken news	Broken by a government whistle- blower, the news is all over the media.

### Perfect Participles

Also, keep an eye out for participle phrases headed by "perfect participles." Perfect participles are formed like this:

"Having" + [past participle]

Examples:

- Having seen
- Having taken
- Having read

These are not a third type of participle. The perfect participle is just a commonly used structure that features a present participle ("having") and a past participle.

Here are some more examples of perfect participles (shaded):

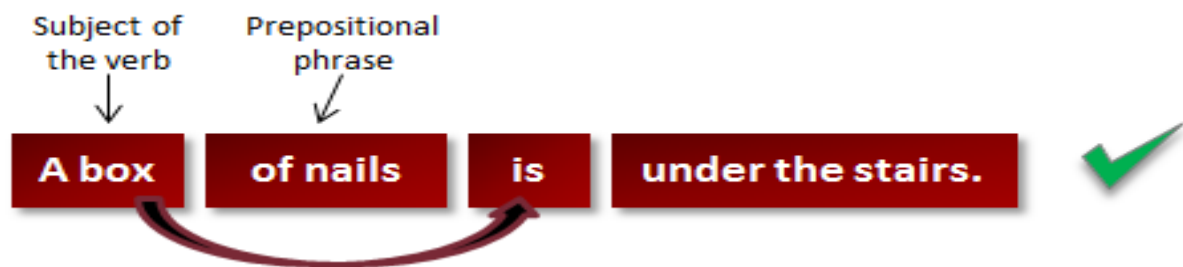
- Having read your book, I now understand your position.
- Having signed the document, Jason felt the weight of responsibility lift from his shoulders.

### Key Points

- Use a participle phrase to say something about your subject before you've even mentioned your subject. That's cool. For example:
  - Packed with vitamin C and antioxidants, oranges are a popular fruit.
- Placed at the front of a sentence, a participle phrase is offset with a comma.

- A participle phrase placed immediately after the noun its modifying is not offset with commas (unless it's nonessential).
- Put your participle phrase next to its noun. If there isn't a noun, you're dangling (and that's never good).
  - Having read your letter, my cat could not have fathered your kittens. ✗
  - Having read your letter, I can assure you that my cat could not have fathered your kittens. ✓

## Prepositional Phrase

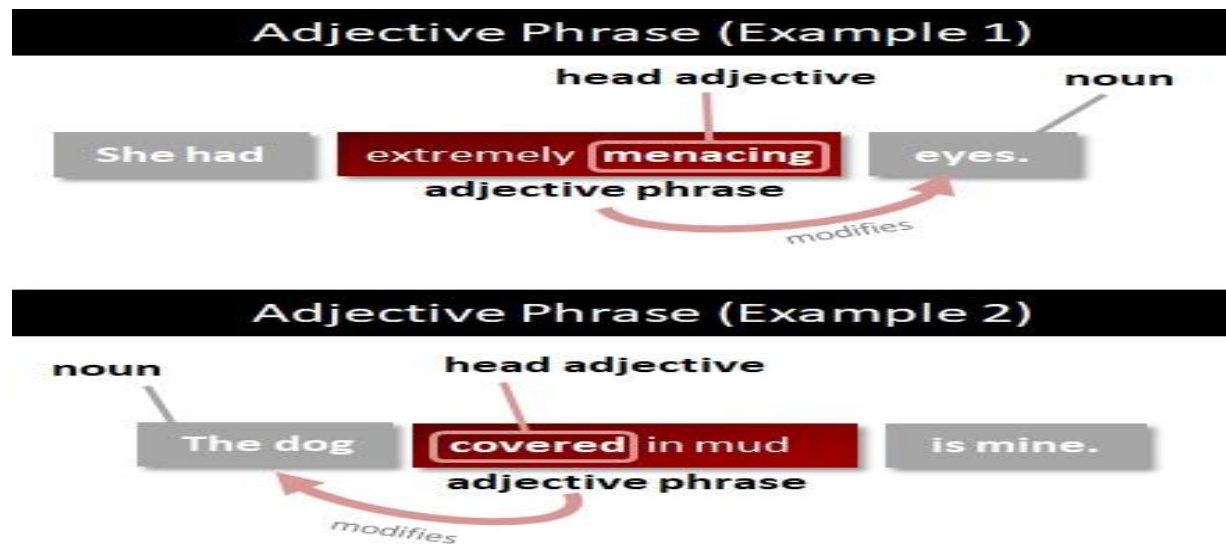


When a term like a box of nails is the subject of a verb, the first word (i.e., a box) determines whether the verb is singular or plural. The words that follow (in this case, of nails) do not affect the verb at all, even though they are usually physically closer to it. (These words are known as a prepositional phrase because they start with a preposition (in this case, of).

## Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase is a group of words headed by an adjective that describes a noun or a pronoun.

## Examples of Adjective Phrases



## Placement of Adjective Phrases

In an adjective phrase, the head adjective can be at the start, the middle or the end of the phrase.

- I am **sad** about the result. (start)
- I am **awfully sad** about the result. (middle)
- I am **very sad**. (end)

**Attributive Adjective.** An attributive adjective typically sits before the noun it is modifying.

- The **beautifully carved** frames are priceless.  
(The adjective phrase is before the noun it modifies (frames). This is an attributive adjective phrase.)

**Predicative Adjective.** A predicative adjective typically sits after the noun it is modifying.

- The frames are **beautifully carved** and priceless.  
(The adjective phrase is after the noun it modifies (The frames). This is a predicative adjective phrase.)

## Gerund Phrase

A gerund phrase is a phrase that consists of a gerund, its object, and any modifiers. In these examples, the gerund phrases are shaded and the gerunds are in bold.

- **Moving** quickly but stealthily is the key to survival.
- Arithmetic is the ability to count up to twenty without **taking off your shoes**. (Mickey Mouse)

### Gerund Phrase

#### Definition

a phrase that consists of a gerund, its object, and any modifiers

#### Example



## The Function of Gerund Phrases

Like all nouns, a gerund phrase can function as a subject, an object, or a complement within a sentence. For example:

- **Eating blackberries** quickly is a bad idea.  
(Here, the gerund phrase is the subject of the verb "is.")
- She hates **waiting for trains**.  
(The gerund phrase is the direct object of the verb "hates.")
- She knew a lot about **growing tomatoes in cold climates**.  
(The gerund phrase is the object of the preposition "about.")

- Her biggest mistake was caring too much about the quality of the product.  
(The gerund phrase is a subject complement that completes the linking verb "was.")

### The Parts of a Gerund Phrase

All gerunds end "-ing." They are nouns formed from verbs. For example:

- eating (from the verb "to eat")
- taking (from the verb "to take")
- painting (from the verb "to paint")

A gerund is not like a normal noun because a gerund can take a direct object (just like a verb can). The direct object of a gerund is known as a gerund complement. For example:

- eating a cake
- taking a drink
- painting a fence

These complements (or objects) make up part of the gerund phrase.

Gerunds can also be modified. For example:

- eating a cake quickly
- taking a drink at the watering hole
- painting a fence with the brush his wife bought him

These modifiers also make up part of the gerund phrase.

### Examples of Gerund Phrases

Here are some real-life examples of gerund phrases. (In these examples, the gerund phrases are shaded, and the gerunds are bold.)

- Arithmetic is the ability to count up to twenty without **taking off your shoes**. (Mickey Mouse)
- Discovery consists of **seeing what everybody has seen** and **thinking what nobody has thought**. (Biochemist Albert Szent-Gyorgyi)
- **Thinking rationally** is a realistic assessment of the situation with a view towards **rectifying the problem if possible**.

## Do Not Confuse Gerunds with Present Participles

Not every word which ends "-ing" is a gerund. Present participles also end "-ing." Present participles are also verbals (i.e., words formed from verbs), but - unlike gerunds - they are not used as nouns. They are used as adjectives or to form verbs in a progressive tense.

### This is a gerund phrase:

- Eating a banana an hour before can help.

These are not gerund phrases:

- Eating a banana with one hand, Jack suddenly looked up.  
(This is a participle phrase. It is functioning as an adjective describing "Jack.")
- The gorilla was eating a banana with one hand.  
(This is a present participle used to form the past progressive tense.)
- If you are eating the wrong foods in the wrong amounts, all the exercise in the world won't combat the caloric intake.

## Infinitive Phrase

An infinitive phrase is the infinitive form of a verb plus any complements and modifiers. In these examples, the infinitive phrases are shaded and the infinitive verbs are in bold.

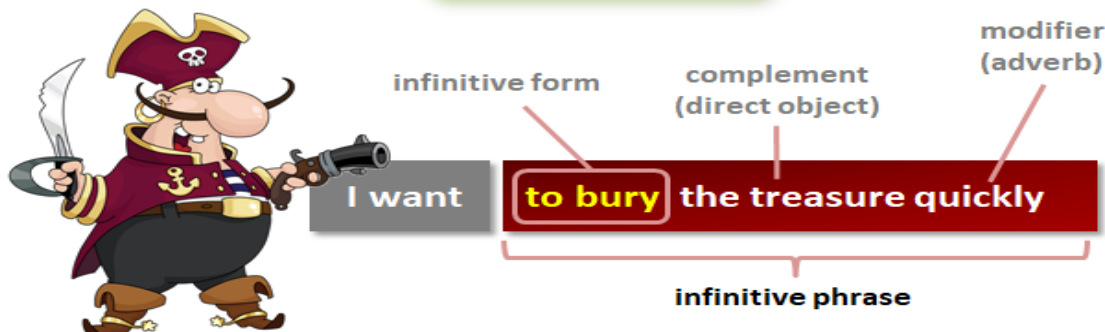
- She tells you **to dance** like no one is watching.
- The first step in forgiveness is the willingness **to forgive** those who have wronged us.  
(Author Marianne Williamson)

## Infinitive Phrase

### Definition

the infinitive form of a verb plus any complements and modifiers

### Example



Here are two examples of infinitive phrases as subjects:

- To have a big dream requires the same effort as having a small dream. Dream big!  
(Brazilian-Swiss businessman Jorge Paulo Lemann)  
(The infinitive phrase is the subject of "requires.")
- To invent an airplane is nothing. To build one is something, but to fly is everything.  
(Aviation pioneer Otto Lilienthal)  
(This quotation has three infinitive phrases functioning as nouns. They are all the subjects of "is.")

Here are two examples of infinitive phrases as objects:

- He helped to build the roof.
- (The infinitive phrase is the direct object of "helped.")
- Nobody wants to hear long speeches. (Guitarist Rick Nielsen)  
(The infinitive phrase is the direct object of "wants.")

Here are two examples of infinitive phrases as complements:

- The only solution was to lower the standards.  
(The infinitive phrase is a subject complement. It completes the linking verb "was.")

- Our aim is to help the clients help themselves, not to tell them what to think.  
(Businessman Peter Hargreaves)  
(The infinitive phrase is a subject complement. It completes the linking verb "is.")

## Infinitive Phrases Used As Adjectives

Here are some infinitive phrases used as adjectives.

When an infinitive phrase functions as an adjective, it describes a noun or a pronoun.

- Let him show you the best way to paint the door.  
(The infinitive phrase describes the noun "way.")
- I love crime books. I need one to read on holiday.  
(The infinitive phrase describes the pronoun "one.")
- The first step in forgiveness is the willingness to forgive those who have wronged us.  
(Author Marianne Williamson)  
(The infinitive phrase describes the noun "willingness.")

## Infinitive Phrases Used As Adverbs

Here are some infinitive phrases used as adverbs.

Most infinitive phrases that function as adverbs tell us why the action occurred. Most infinitive phrases that function as adverbs could start with "in order to" (as opposed to just "to.")

- The officer returned to help the inspectors  
(The infinitive phrase modifies the verb "returned." It tells us why.)
- He opened the box to reveal a huge bullfrog.  
(The infinitive phrase modifies the verb "opened." It tells us why.)
- God loves to help him who strives to help himself. (Greek tragedian Aeschylus)  
(It can get complicated. The infinitive phrase "to help him who strives to help himself" is functioning as a noun (i.e., it is the direct object of "loves"). That infinitive phrase



contains the infinitive phrase "to help himself," which is functioning as an adverb modifying "strives.")

### Infinitive Phrases with Bare Infinitives (When Not Preceded by "To")

Most infinitives are preceded by "to," but after certain verbs, the "to" is dropped. This happens when an infinitive follows "can," "could," "may," "might," "must," "shall," "should," "will," or "would" (i.e., a modal auxiliary verb).

In these examples, the infinitive phrases have a bare infinitive (in bold):

- He should go home immediately.
- They might finish the project by Wednesday.

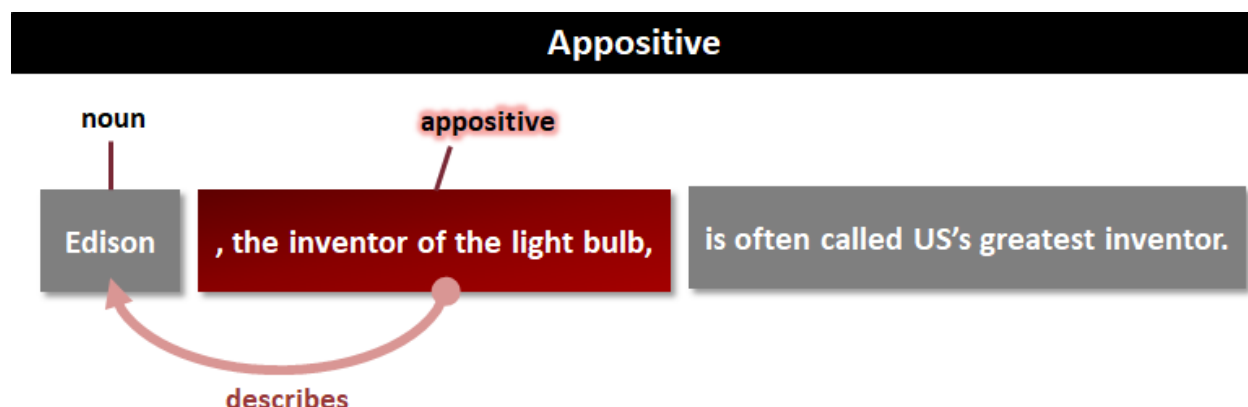
Bare infinitives also follow other verbs. The main ones are "feel," "hear," "help," "let," "make," "see," and "watch." This time, there is a direct object involved. For example:

- Dawn helped her friend bake his mother a cake.  
(The "special" verb is "helped." The direct object is "her friend." In the infinitive phrase, the bare infinitive is "bake." Its direct object is "a cake." This time there is an indirect object ("his mother") in the infinitive phrase too.)
- I watched them sweep the road as fast as they could.  
(The "special" verb is "watched." The direct object is "them." In the infinitive phrase, the bare infinitive is "sweep." Its direct object is "the road." The phrase "as fast as they could" is an adverbial clause.)

### Appositive Phrase

An appositive is a noun or a noun phrase that sits next to another noun to rename it or to describe it in another way. In these examples, the appositives are shaded.

- Elizabeth I, the daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, became Queen of England in 1558.
- Thomas Edison, the inventor of the light bulb, is often called USA's greatest inventor.



## Restrictive and Non-restrictive Appositives

Often an appositive will just provide bonus information that could be removed without destroying the meaning. Sometimes, however, removing an appositive will leave you with a question.

- Peter won the lottery.
- Dr. Pat sold 8 barrels on the first day.

Peter who? Which Dr. Pat? Eight barrels of what?

When an appositive is essential for understanding, it is called a restrictive appositive. When it's just removable bonus information, it's called a non-restrictive appositive. Non-restrictive appositives are always offset with commas, dashes or brackets. Restrictive appositives are usually offset with commas, dashes, or parentheses (round brackets) but not always.

- My dog **Dexter** will chew your shoes if you leave them there.
- My Army mate **Lee** caught a whelk while fishing for bass.

When a restrictive appositive is not offset with punctuation (as in the two examples above and the first example below), the structure will be [generic term-specific term], as opposed to [specific term-generic term].

- My sister **Dawn** might actually be an angel.  
(The structure is [generic term-specific term].)

- Dawn, **my sister**, might actually be an angel.  
(The structure is [specific term-generic term].)

When an appositive appears at the end of sentence, it can be introduced with a colon.

- He demanded just one thing: **loyalty**.  
(A comma or a dash would also be fine.)

## Absolute Phrase

Phrases Functioning as Different Parts of Speech

Here is a list of the parts of speech with an example of a phrase functioning as each one.

- **Adjectives**
  - I am looking for a book **to make me laugh**.  
(This is an example of an infinitive phrase functioning as an adjective. It describes "a book." Phrases commonly function as adjectives.)
- **Adverbs**
  - I am going there **to support you**.  
(This is an example of an infinitive phrase functioning as an adverb. It is an adverb of reason. Phrases commonly function as adverbs.)
- **Conjunctions**
  - I am **not only** angry **but also** disappointed.  
(This is an example of a phrase functioning as a conjunction. Most conjunctions are single words, not phrases. This is an example of a correlative conjunction.)
- **Determiners**
  - I know **a few** people who could give you **a hundred and one** reasons.  
(In this example, there are two phrases functioning as determiners. These determiners are both quantifiers. Most determiners are single words.)

- **Interjections**

- **Holy moly!** She won!

(This is an example of a phrase functioning as an interjection. Most interjections are single words.)

- **Nouns**

- **Running the tap** is necessary to clear the air pocket.

(This is an example of a gerund phrase functioning as a noun. Phrases commonly function as nouns.)

### Semicolon before a Transitional Phrase

This point is closely related to the lesson [Extending a Sentence with a Semicolon](#) as it concerns merging two sentences to form one. However, in these examples, there is a short bridge between the first half and the second half of the sentence. The bridge is known as a transitional phrase. There is always a comma after a transitional phrase but not before.

A transitional phrase will usually start a new sentence, but if you would like a smoother transition than that afforded by a full stop / period, you can use a semicolon before a transitional phrase to merge the new sentence with the previous one.

Examples (transitional phrases shown in bold):

- Everyone knows he is guilty; **of course**, it will never be proved. ✓

(The transitional phrase **of course** acts like a bridge between the first half and the second half.)

- Sarah's guest was turned away by the doorman; **as a result**, she left before the presentations. ✓

(**as a result** – transitional phrase)

- Business is booming; **for example**, Siemens has made 10 orders since 4 o'clock. ✓

(for example – transitional phrase)

- I missed the early plane; however, I still made the meeting. ✓

(however – transitional phrase)

- The paper is stuck in the lift; consequently, we cannot finish the printing. ✓

(consequently – transitional phrase)

- She does not loathe chess, on the contrary, she quite likes it. ✗





(The term on the contrary is a transitional phrase. You cannot merge two sentences into one with a comma. You must either start a new sentence or use a semicolon.)

My security guards are not trained in fire-fighting; therefore, we paged the fire service.

## Sentence

A sentence is a group of words giving a complete thought. A sentence must contain a subject and a verb (although one may be implied).

**The Four Sentence Types**

<p><b>declarative sentence</b> (makes a statement)</p>		<p>A lie told often enough becomes the truth.</p>
<p><b>interrogative sentence</b> (asks a question)</p>		<p>What is history but a fable agreed upon?</p>
<p><b>imperative sentence</b> (gives a command)</p>		<p>Get in your tanks.</p>
<p><b>exclamatory sentence</b> (expresses emotion)</p>		<p>Ouch! That hurts!</p>

## The Four Types of Sentence

A sentence can convey a statement, a question, an exclamation, or a command. There are four types of sentence:

- **A Declarative Sentence.**

A declarative sentence states a fact and ends with a period (full stop).

For example:

- He has every attribute of a dog except loyalty. (Politician Thomas P Gore)
- I wonder if other dogs think poodles are members of a weird religious cult. (Comedian Rita Rudner)  
(Remember that a statement which contains an indirect question (like this example) is not a question.)

- **An Imperative Sentence.**

An imperative sentence is a command or a polite request. It ends with an exclamation mark or a period (full stop). For example:

- When a dog runs at you, whistle for him. (Philosopher Henry David Thoreau, 1817-1862)

- **An Interrogative Sentence.**

An interrogative sentence asks a question and ends with a question mark. For example:

- Who knew that dog saliva can mend a broken heart? (Author Jennifer Neal)

- **An Exclamatory Sentence.**

An exclamatory sentence expresses excitement or emotion. It ends with an exclamation mark. For example:

- In Washington, it's dog eat dog. In academia, it's exactly the opposite! (Politician Robert Reich)

## he Subject Could Be Implied.

In an imperative sentence (an order) or an interrogative sentence (a question), the subject or verb is often implied.

- Run!

- Go.  
(This is the shortest sentence in English.)

- Why?

The shortest sentence without an implied subject or verb is "I am" or "I go."

## The Four Sentence Structures

A sentence can consist of a single clause or several clauses. When a sentence is a single clause, it is called a simple sentence (and the clause is called an independent clause). A sentence must contain at least one independent clause. Below are the four types of sentence structure (with their independent clauses shaded):

- **A Complex Sentence.**

A complex sentence has an independent clause and at least one dependent clause. For example:

- Diplomacy is the art of saying "nice doggie" until you can find a rock. (Actor Will Rogers, 1879-1935)
- When you're on the Internet, nobody knows you're a dog. (Cartoonist Peter Steiner)

- **A Compound Sentence.**

A compound sentence has at least two independent clauses. For example:

- Cry "Havoc," and let slip the dogs of war. (Playwright William Shakespeare, 1564-1616)

- **A Simple Sentence.**

A simple sentence has just one independent clause. For example:

- You can't surprise a man with a dog. (Screenwriter Cindy Chupack)

- **A Compound-Complex Sentence.**

A compound-complex sentence has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause. For example:

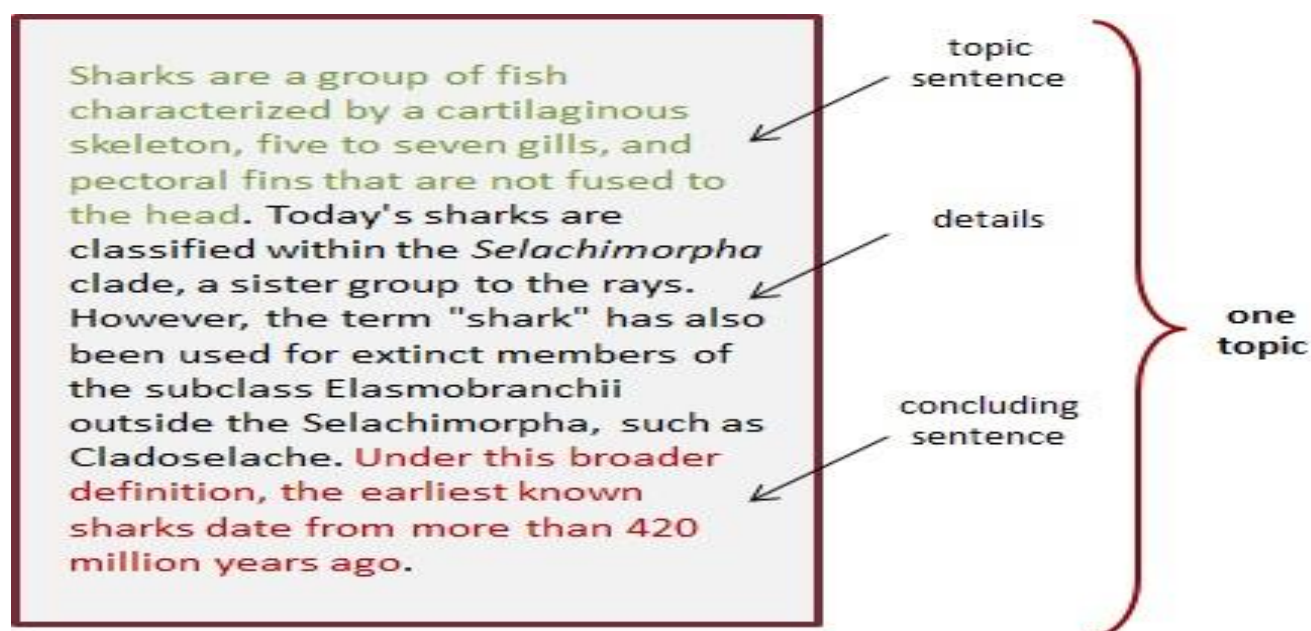
- When a dog bites a man, that is not news because it happens so often, but if a man bites a dog, that is news. (Editor John B. Bogart)

## Paragraph

A paragraph is a distinct section of writing covering one topic. A paragraph will usually contain more than one sentence.

A paragraph starts on a new line. Sometimes, paragraphs are indented or numbered. (Whatever format you use, be consistent.)

The "perfect paragraph" will start with a topic sentence. It will have detail sentences in the middle and end with a concluding sentence. It will only cover one topic from start to finish. The length of a paragraph is supposed to be determined by the topic, but often writers will create a paragraph simply to ensure they're not presenting too much text in one chunk.



A paragraph could be part of a text that informs people, describes something, critiques something, compares things, persuades people, lists a process, makes an argument, offers a solution or narrates a story. And, the level of detail will vary from text to text.

All this diversity means that it's not always easy to determine what "one topic" means when dividing your text into paragraphs. For example, you could have a one-topic paragraph describing Venus (with the next paragraph describing Mars) or a one-topic paragraph describing the colours of a sunset (with the next paragraph describing its reflection in the sea).

If you're getting the sense that the word topic is a bit too grand for a measly paragraph, then think of a paragraph as a distinct section of writing that covers one aspect of your topic. That's the point. Sometimes, a paragraph will be an aspect of a topic, sometimes it will be a topic within



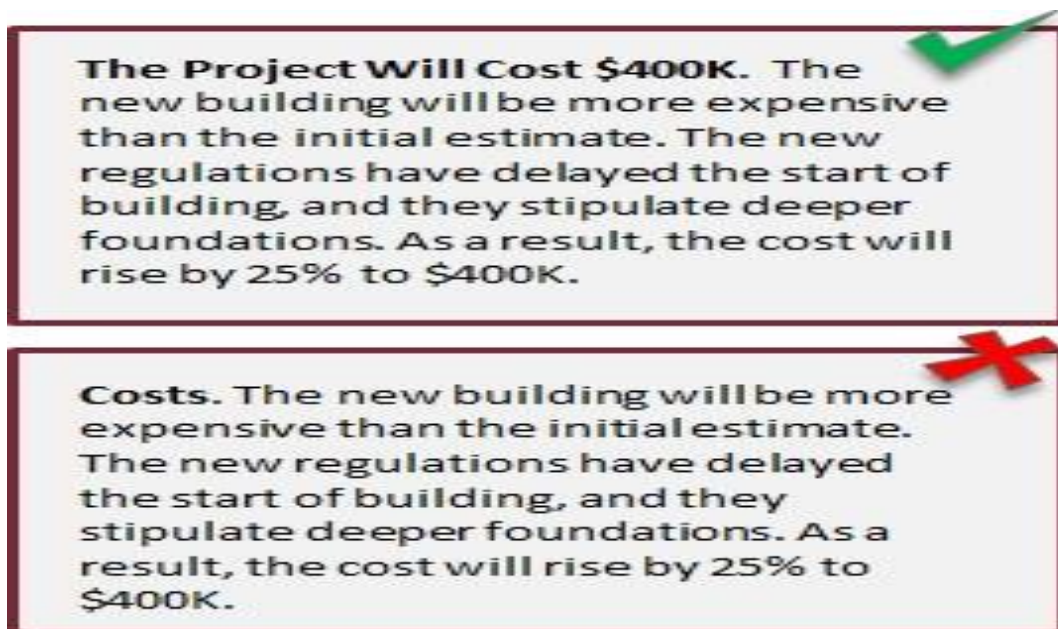
an issue, sometimes it will be an issue within an argument...a narrative, a process, a comparison, whatever. Whatever the scope of your paragraph, it should be neatly bounded as one...well, topic. If you prefer aspect instead of topic, go with that.

### **Why Should I Care about Paragraphs?**

There are three noteworthy points related to paragraphs. One is a good tip, one is a style convention, and one is an observation.

#### **(Point 1 - a good tip) In business writing, use paragraph titles.**

A good tip for business writing is to give each of your paragraphs a title that summarizes the paragraph content. This serves two purposes. Firstly, it ensures your paragraph topic is neatly bounded, and, secondly, the title will assist busy executives with skim-reading.



You could use a single-word title for your paragraph (e.g., Cost), but it wouldn't be as useful. Another useful tip is to concoct a paragraph title in your head (i.e., don't physically write it). This is a useful tip to ensure your paragraph covers one topic neatly.

#### **(Point 2 - a style convention) Use several "opening" quotation marks if your quotation covers more than one paragraph.**

When a quotation contains multiple paragraphs (or is a text with lots of new lines), a common convention is to use an opening quotation mark at the start of each paragraph (to remind your

readers that they're still reading a quotation) but only one closing quotation mark at the end of the last paragraph. Look at this example:

In 1912, the publisher Arthur C. Fifield sent Gertrude Stein the following rejection letter shortly after receiving her manuscript for *The Making of Americans*:

"Dear Madam,

"I am only one, only one, only one. Only one being, one at the same time. Not two, not three, only one. Only one life to live, only sixty minutes in one hour. Only one pair of eyes. Only one brain. Only one being. Being only one, having only one pair of eyes, having only one time, having only one life, I cannot read your M.S. three or four times. Not even one time. Only one look, only one look is enough. Hardly one copy would sell here. Hardly one. Hardly one.

"Many thanks. I am returning the M.S. by registered post. Only one M.S. by one post.

"Sincerely yours,

"A. C. Fifield"

- Note how only the last "paragraph" (in this case, the name) gets a closing quotation mark.

**(Point 3 - an observation) Your online readers won't read lengthy texts, so use your discretion to keep your paragraphs short.**

In print, an unbroken lengthy text looks dull and daunting. On a screen, an unbroken lengthy text looks doubly so. Therefore, dividing a long text into bite-sized topics is essential for keeping your readers engaged. If we're being strict, each of your paragraphs should neatly encapsulate one topic, but, as we've touched upon, the definition of "topic" is pretty slack, and this often gives you some wriggle room to play with your paragraph lengths.

Yes, there is a one-topic-one-paragraph ruling, but there's also a need to protect your readers

from lengthy texts. Strike a balance or lose your readers.

This sounds like advice to play with the rules for writing a paragraph. Good. It is. If you're unconvinced that readers – particularly online readers – need lots of "whitespace", try Googling "the value of whitespace".

### Key Points

- Keep your paragraphs neatly bounded under one topic by using paragraph titles (even if those titles exist only in your head and not on paper).
- Give each paragraph in a multi-paragraph quotation an opening quotation mark. Close the quotation with a closing quotation mark at the end of the final paragraph.
- If you're writing web content, keep your paragraphs short (even if that means bending the one-topic-one-paragraph rule).

## RULES FOR FINDING AND FIXING FRAGMENTS

Recognize the difference between a sentence and a fragment.

- A **fragment** resembles a **sentence** in two ways. Both groups of words begin with a capital letter and conclude with an end mark—usually a period [.] but sometimes a question mark [?] or an exclamation point [!].
- The one important difference is that a fragment does not contain a **main clause**. Like an engine, the main clause powers a complete sentence, propelling the reader through the development of an idea. A fragment, missing this essential component, stalls on the page.
- When you analyze a group of words looking for the main clause, you have to find three things: a **subject**, a **verb**, and a complete thought. If one of these three items is missing, a fragment results.
- Here are examples of fragments:
  - And yawned loudly enough to make everyone in class turn around.
  - Subject = Ø ; verb = **yawned**; complete thought = Ø.
  - The boy sitting on the fire escape, dropping water balloons on the pedestrians below.

- Subject = *boy*; verb =  $\emptyset$ ; complete thought =  $\emptyset$ .
- After Gabriel ate half a box of donuts.
- Subject = *Gabriel*; verb = *ate*; complete thought =  $\emptyset$ .
- Know how to identify the type of fragment that you have found.
- You can correct a **fragment** two ways: 1) adding the necessary **main clause** or 2) connecting the fragment to a main clause already in the passage. Whether you add or connect, you must use the right punctuation.
- Some fragments, for example, will require a **comma** if you connect them at the *beginning* of a main clause. If you choose to connect them at the *end*, however, these same fragments require no punctuation at all. Other fragments will require a comma whether you connect them at beginning or the end. To make an intelligent comma decision, you first have to identify the *type* of fragment that you have.
- A fragment will often be a lone **subordinate clause**, **participle phrase**, **infinitive phrase**, afterthought, lonely **verb phrase**, or **appositive**. Each type of fragment has a *marker* that identifies it.
- Subordinate Clause Fragments
- A subordinate clause fragment [sometimes called a *dependent* clause fragment] will begin with a **subordinate conjunction**, a **relative pronoun**, or a **relative adverb**. You will also find a subject and a verb. Unfortunately, this combination of words will not express a complete thought *by itself*.
- Think of the problem like this: At work, there are bosses and their employees, also known as *subordinates*. When the bosses aren't directly supervising, many subordinates neglect their responsibilities. In a sentence, the main clause is the boss. If the boss is

absent, the subordinate clause goofs off, and the job of communicating a full thought doesn't get done.

- Here are the words that will begin a subordinate clause fragment:

### Subordinate Conjunctions

after	in case	than
although	in that	that
as	in order that	though
as if	in so far as	till
as long as	just as	unless
as soon as	no matter how	until
as though	now that	when
because	once	whenever
before	provided that	where
even if	rather than	whereas
even though	since	wherever
how	so [ <i>that</i> implied]	whether
if	so that	while

### Relative Pronouns

which

who

whom

whichever

whoever

whomever

whose

### Relative Adverbs

when

where

why

- These words are your *markers* for this type of fragment.
- Here are some examples:
- *Because* Chase caught the eye of the beautiful brunette in algebra.
- *Because* = subordinate conjunction; *Chase* = subject; *caught* = verb.
- What happened? Was he able to cheat on the test? Did he quickly ask her for a date? We don't know because the thought is *incomplete*.
- *Until* Rachel notices the toilet paper stuck to her shoe.
- *Until* = subordinate conjunction; *Rachel* = subject; *notices* = verb.
- What will happen? Will she embarrass her date? Will people at the restaurant stare? We don't know because this is another *incomplete* thought.
- *Even though* Fred stuck straws up his nose.
- *Even though* = subordinate conjunction; *Fred* = subject; *stuck* = verb.
- What happened? Could he still not pass for a walrus? Did the McDonald's manager offer him a job anyway? We don't know because this thought is *incomplete* too!
- *Whom* you can trust with the secret.
- *Whom* = relative pronoun; *you* = subject; *can trust* = verb.

- Who is this person? We don't know because this thought is not finished.
- *Where* the popcorn is stale and the soda flat.
- *Where* = relative adverb; *popcorn* = subject; *is* = verb.
- This sounds like a place to avoid, but where is it? We don't have enough information to know because we have only half the thought.

#### • Participle Phrase Fragments

- A **participle phrase** fragment will begin with a word ending in *ing* or *ed*, or the fragment will open with an irregular past participle. More words will follow to finish the phrase, but nowhere will you find a main clause to complete the thought. *By itself*, a participle phrase cannot be a sentence.
- Your marker for this type of fragment is the present or past participle that you will find at the beginning of the fragment.
- Take a look at these examples:
- *Sunning* themselves on the hot concrete until they heard human feet crashing down the sidewalk.
- All the while *twirling* the baton with the speed and ferocity of helicopter blades.
- *Sucked* down the pipe with a hearty slurp.
- *Hidden* in the bureau drawer underneath a pile of mismatched socks.

#### • Infinitive Phrase Fragments

- An **infinitive phrase** fragment will begin with *to* followed by the base form of the verb, like this:
- + 



 = infinitive

- Although more words will follow to finish the phrase, you will not find a **main clause** to complete the thought. An infinitive phrase—*by itself*—cannot be a sentence.
- Look for the **to + verb** as your marker for this type of fragment.
- Study these examples:
- Only *to watch* in dismay as Dr. Frazier poured her chemistry experiment into the sink.
- *To catch* butterflies for her biology project.
- *To break* a piece of plywood with his bare hands.

- **Afterthought Fragments**

- An afterthought clarifies earlier information by providing specific details. When an afterthought does not contain a **main clause**, it is a fragment. These words and phrases frequently begin afterthoughts: *especially, except, excluding, for example, for instance, including, like*, and *such as*.
- These words are your markers for this type of fragment [although infrequently you will have *just* the list of details].
- Here are some examples:
- *For example*, leaky pens, candy wrappers, dollar bills, and paperclips.
- *Including* the dog with three legs and the cat with one eye.
- *Such as* leaving the stove on and teasing mean dogs.

- **Lonely Verb Fragments**



- Writers will sometimes forget to include a **subject** in a sentence. The result is a **verb** pining for its partner. With the subject missing, the word group thus becomes a lonely verb fragment.
- A lonely verb fragment will often begin with a **coordinating conjunction** [*and, but, for, or, nor, so, yet*]. The marker for this type of fragment will be the immediate expression of action. Remember that a verb *alone* cannot be a sentence.
- Study these examples:
  - And *dashed* through the downpour as raindrops softened the hairspray shell holding her elaborate coif in place.
  - But *knew* that all of his effort would prove useless in the long run.
  - *Took* the thick book and, with a heavy sigh, loaded it on top of her research pile.
- **Appositive Fragments**
  - An **appositive** is a **noun phrase** that renames and clarifies another **noun**. Because an appositive can be long, writers sometimes mistake one for a complete sentence. *By itself*, however, an appositive is not a sentence.
  - An appositive fragment will begin with a noun and usually include one or more clarifying **phrases** or **subordinate clauses** after it.
  - Here are some examples:
    - The unprepared *student* who was always begging for an extra pencil and a couple sheets of blank paper.
    - A *slacker* wasting his afternoon in front of the television.
    - A *dog* around whom people need to guard their fingers and food.

- Know how to fix the fragment that you have found.
- You can fix any fragment by either 1) revising the fragment so that it includes a **main clause** or 2) connecting the fragment to a main clause that comes before or after it. When you connect, you have to know whether or not punctuation is required. Learning the nine punctuation rules that follow will help you not only fix fragments but also punctuate your sentences correctly.

- Fixing Subordinate Clause Fragments

- When you have a **subordinate clause** fragment, removing *one thing*—the *subordinating word*—will give you the necessary **main clause**. Look at this fragment:
- Because Chase caught the eye of the beautiful brunette in algebra.
- Removing *because* makes the thought complete. *Chase* is the subject, *caught* the verb. Now you have a sentence!
- Chase caught the eye of the beautiful brunette in algebra.
- If, however, you need the subordinating word because of the meaning it provides, then fix the fragment by connecting it.
- If you attach the fragment *after* a main clause, use **Punctuation Rule 1**:
- MAIN CLAUSE + Ø + SUBORDINATE CLAUSE.
- Here is an example:
- We will continue giggling Ø *until Rachel notices the toilet paper stuck to her shoe*.
- If you attach the fragment *in front of* a main clause, use **Punctuation Rule 2**:
- SUBORDINATE CLAUSE + , + MAIN CLAUSE.
- The fix looks like this:
- *Even though Fred stuck straws up his nose*, Melissa ate her tuna fish sandwich and continued to ignore him.

- Fixing Participle Phrase Fragments

- One way to fix a **participle phrase** fragment is to add the necessary **main clause**. Here is such a fragment:

- Sunning themselves on the hot concrete until they heard human feet crashing down the sidewalk.

- Notice that you're not sure what species is enjoying the warmth. If you add this information and *complete* the **verb**, the problem would be fixed. The correction would look like this:

- The little lizards were *sunning themselves on the hot concrete until they heard human feet crashing down the sidewalk*.

- In addition, you can attach a participle phrase fragment *after* a main clause. Just follow **Punctuation Rule 3**:

- MAIN CLAUSE + , + PARTICIPLE PHRASE.

- Check out this sample:

- The majorette marched at the front of the parade, *all the while twirling her batons with the speed and ferocity of helicopter blades*.

- Or you can choose to use **Punctuation Rule 4**:

- PARTICIPLE PHRASE + , + MAIN CLAUSE.

- The participle phrase *introduces* the main clause, like this:

- *Sucked down the pipe with a hearty slurp*, the dirty bath water drained from the tub.

- Fixing Infinitive Phrase Fragments

- You can convert an **infinitive phrase** fragment into a sentence by adding a **subject** and conjugating the **verb**.
- Take a look at this fragment:
- Only to watch in dismay as Dr. Frazier poured her chemistry experiment into the sink.
- When you read this fragment, you don't know *who* is involved. With a couple of minor changes, however, you have the necessary **main clause** that every sentence requires:
- *Amber watched* in dismay as Dr. Frazier poured her chemistry experiment into the sink.
- If you don't like that option, you can attach an infinitive phrase fragment *after* a main clause. Just follow **Punctuation Rule 5**:
- MAIN CLAUSE + Ø + INFINITIVE PHRASE.
- Here's how it will look:
- Jossie enlisted the help of several spiders Ø *to catch butterflies for her biology project*.
- Or you can use **Punctuation Rule 6**:
- INFINITIVE PHRASE + , + MAIN CLAUSE.
- The infinitive phrase *introduces* the main clause, like this:
- *To break a piece of plywood with his bare hands*, Daniel followed his karate teacher's advice and focused his power.
- **Fixing Afterthought Fragments**
- You can fix an afterthought fragment one of two ways. One option is to insert the missing **subject** and **verb** so that you have a **main clause**. This option works best when

you have *for example* and *for instance* as the transitions beginning the fragment. Take a look at this example:

- For example, leaky pens, candy wrappers, dollar bills, and paperclips.
- The simple addition of a subject and verb will fix the problem:
- For example, *the desk drawer contained* leaky pens, candy wrappers, dollar bills, and paperclips.
- Or you can attach the afterthought fragment to the end of a main clause. This option works best when the fragment begins with *except, excluding, including, like* and *such as*. Use **Punctuation Rule 7**:

- MAIN CLAUSE + , + AFTERTHOUGHT TRANSITION + Ø + DETAILS .
- The correction looks like this:
- John has many unsafe habits, *such as Ø leaving the stove on and teasing mean dogs* .

#### • Fixing Lonely Verb Fragments

- One missing element—the subject—makes a lonely verb fragment an error. Here is such a fragment:
- And dashed through the downpour as raindrops softened the hairspray shell holding her elaborate coif in place.
- *Who* did the dashing? We don't know. The subject might be mentioned in a sentence that came previously, but *this* word group is a fragment because no subject exists in *it*. To correct the error, all you need to do is insert a subject, like this:
- *Betty* dashed through the downpour as raindrops softened the hairspray shell holding her elaborate coif in place.

- If you want to connect this type of fragment to a main clause in front, use **Punctuation**

**Rule 8:**

- MAIN CLAUSE + Ø + LONELY VERB PHRASE.\*
- With a heavy sigh, Darryl began counting the words of his essay  
 $\emptyset$  *but knew that all of his effort would prove useless in the long run.*
- \*If the coordinating conjunction beginning the lonely verb phrase connects *three or more* verbs, you will need to use a comma. See **Comma Tip 4**.
- **Fixing Appositive Fragments**
- You have two options when fixing an **appositive** fragment. Since an appositive contains a **noun** which can conveniently become a **subject**, adding a **verb** will often fix the problem.
- Look at this example:
- The unprepared student who was always begging for an extra pencil and a couple sheets of blank paper.
- We know *who* we are talking about; now we need to know what this student *did*.
- The unprepared student who was always begging for an extra pencil and a couple sheets of blank paper *screamed*.
- If you don't like *screamed*, try *cried*, *sang*, *protested* the accusations, *bit* his lip, *crossed* his fingers, *flirted* with Jasmine, etc.]
- Another good option is to connect the appositive to a **main clause**.
- **Punctuation Rule 9** says this: No matter where you attach the appositive—at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end—always use comma(s) to separate it.
- Here are some samples:

- *A slacker wasting his afternoon in front of the television*, Brian opened a bag of potato chips instead of his chemistry textbook.
- Brian, *a slacker wasting his afternoon in front of the television*, opened a bag of potato chips instead of his chemistry textbook.
- On the lawn chair lay Rocket, *a dog around whom people need to guard their fingers and food*.

### Translation Urdu into English

#### Paragraph 1

تندرستی بڑی نعمت ہے۔ لیکن آدمی جب تک تندرست رہتا ہے اس نعمت کی قدر نہیں کرتا۔ جب کوئی معمولی بیماری بھی اسے آکر گھیر لے تو اس کی قدر معلوم ہو جاتی ہے۔ اگر جسم کے کسی حصے میں تکلیف ہو جاتی ہے تو سارا جسم اثر قبول کرتا ہے۔ تندرستی ہو تو کھانے پینے، چلنے پھرنے اور کام کرنے میں جی لگتا ہے۔ صحت خراب ہو جائے تو کسی چیز میں مزہ نہیں آتا۔ جو لوگ اکثر بیمار رہتے ہیں ان کی زندگی خود ان کے اور ان کے دوسرے متعلقین کے لیے وبالِ جان بن جاتی ہے۔

#### English Translation:

Health is a great blessing but man does not value it as long as is healthy. When he catches a minor disease, he realizes its worth. If there is a pain in any part of the body, the whole body feels its presence. If a man is healthy, he enjoys eating, drinking, walking and working. If health is broken, everything becomes tasteless. The people who are often ill, their life become troublesome for themselves and for their relatives.

#### Paragraph 2

رشوت ستانی اور بد عنوانی ہمارے معاشرے کا حصہ بن چکی ہے۔ ان کا تعلق کسی ایک ادارے یا سوسائٹی کے مخصوص حصے سے نہیں ہے۔ بلکہ یہ تو ہر محکمے اور ہر ادارے کا لازمی جزو نظر آتی ہیں۔ زندگی اب بالکل سادہ نہیں رہی۔ درمیانہ طبقہ دولت مندوں کی نقل میں اپنے راستے سے بھٹک گیا ہے۔ ہم سامانِ قیث کو حاصل کرنے میں اپنا بہت سا وقت صرف کر دیتے ہیں۔ دوسروں کو بچاؤ کھانے اور راتوں رات امیر بننے کی دوڑ معاشرے کو رشوت ستانی اور بد عنوانی کی طرف دھکیل رہی ہے۔

#### English Translation:

Bribery and corruption have become a part of our society. These things are not related to a specific part of a single department or a society. It seems to be a necessary component of every department and institution. Life is no more quite simple. The middle class has lost its way in order to follow rich people. We lose a lot of time in getting the luxuries of life. The race to defeat other and to become rich is pushing the society towards bribery and corruption.

### Paragraph 3

علم ایک عظیم قوت ہے۔ علم کے ذریعے ہمیں مادی دولت ہی نہیں بلکہ روحانی سکون بھی حاصل ہوتا ہے۔ ہمارے مذہب میں علم حاصل کرنا ہر شخص پر فرض ہے۔ یہ ایک ایسی چیز ہے جسے کوئی چرا نہیں سکتا۔ علم کے بغیر کوئی انسان اپنی ذات کو بھی نہیں پہچان سکتا اور یوں ہی ساری زندگی اپنے مقصدِ حیات سے بے خبر رہتا ہے۔ علم حاصل کر کے انسان اپنی، اپنے معاشرے اور قوم کی بہتری کا سبب بن سکتا ہے۔

English Translation:

Knowledge is a great power. Knowledge not only gives us not only money but also spiritual satisfaction. In our religion, getting knowledge is obligatory for everyone. This is the thing that cannot be stolen. Without knowledge, no man can recognize himself and is unaware of his objective throughout his life. Having the knowledge got, a man can bring about the betterment of himself, his society, and his nation.

### Paragraph 4

پاکستان ایک امن پسند ملک ہے۔ ہم اپنے ہمسایوں سے ہمیشہ دوستانہ تعلقات رکھنا چاہتے ہیں۔ لیکن اس کا مطلب یہ نہیں کہ ہم اپنے دفاع سے غافل ہو جائیں۔ ہمیں اپنے گرد و پیش پر نظر رکھنے کی ضرورت ہے۔ ہمیں اتنا مضبوط ہونا چاہیے کہ کوئی ہماری طرف بُری آنکھ سے نہ دیکھ سکے۔ موجودہ زمانے میں مضبوط دفاع ہی امن کی ضمانت ہے۔

English Translation:

Pakistan is a peace-loving country. We always want to keep friendly relations with our neighbors. But that doesn't mean that we ignore our defense. We need to keep an eye on our surroundings. We should be strong enough that no can think of harming us. In the present age, a strong defense is the assurance of peace.

### Paragraph 5

ہمارے سکولوں میں بچوں کو جسمانی سزا دی جاتی ہے۔ اس کا مقصد بظاہر بچے کی اصلاح کرنا ہوتا ہے۔ لیکن یہ دیکھا جاتا ہے کہ سزا کی وجہ سے بچے خود اعتمادی کھودیتے ہیں۔ ان میں جارحانہ رویہ پیدا ہوتا ہے اور بغاوت کے جذبات پیدا ہوتے ہیں۔ نتیجے کے طور پر وہ استاد اور سکول سے نفرت کرنا شروع کر دیتے ہیں۔ اور سکول جانا چھوڑ دیتے ہیں۔

Children are given corporal punishment in our schools. The apparent purpose of this is to reform the child. But it is observed that children lose their self-confidence due to punishment. They become aggressive. Emotions of defiance are developed in them. Consequently, they start hating the teacher and the school and quit schooling.

### Paragraph 6

آج کل ہم سائنسی دور میں رہ رہے ہیں۔ دنیا کا ہر ملک سائنسی میدان میں ترقی کرنے کی آرزو رکھتا ہے۔ انسان کو چاہیے کہ سائنس کو مثبت مقاصد کے لیے استعمال کرے۔ لیکن انسان نے اس کی مدد سے بہت ہولناک اور تباہ کن ہتھیار بنالیے ہیں۔ درحقیقت ہر ملک چاہتا ہے کہ اس کے پاس جدید ترین دفاعی ہتھیار ہوں۔



### English Translation

We are living in the age of science. Every country of the world wants to make scientific development. Man should use science for positive purposes. But man has made very dreadful and destructive weapons with the help of science. In fact, every country wants to have the latest defense weapons.

### Paragraph 7

مسلمانوں کو قائد اعظم پر پورا اعتماد تھا۔ وہ آپ کی ہر بات مان لینے پر فخر محسوس کرتے تھے۔ قائد اعظم نے مسلمانوں کو متحد ہونے کا مشورہ دیا۔ مسلمانوں نے آپ کی نصیحت پر عمل کیا۔ قائد اعظم نے پاکستان کے قیام کے لیے سخت محنت کی۔ آخر کا 14 اگست 1947 میں پاکستان بن گیا اور ہمارے عظیم قائد کو ان کی محنت کا پھل مل گیا۔

### English Translation

Muslims had great confidence in Quaid-e-Azam. They felt pride in following his advises. Quaid-e-Azam suggested the Muslims be united. Muslims acted upon his advice. Quaid-e-Azam struggled hard for the formation of Pakistan. At last, Pakistan came into being on 14th of August 1947 and our great leader received the fruit of his hard work.

### Paragraph 8

آج کے دور میں جنگلات کی اہمیت بہت زیادہ ہے۔ یہ آب و ہوا کو خوشگوار بناتے ہیں۔ یہ موسم کی شدت کو کم کرتے ہیں۔ یہ آندھیوں، سیلابوں، اور سیم و تھور کو روکتے ہیں۔ بارش کا سبب بنتے ہیں۔ برف کو جلد پگھلنے سے روکتے ہیں۔ زمین کی زرخیزی کو بڑھاتے ہیں۔ جنگلات ملک کی معاشی ترقی میں اہم کردار ادا کرتے ہیں۔

### English Translation

The forests have great importance today. They keep the climate pleasant. They control the intensity of weather. They prevent windstorms, floods, and salinity and water lodging. They bring about rain. Prevent ice from melting early. They enhance the fertility of the soil. Forests play an important role in the economic development of a country.

### Paragraph 9

علامہ اقبال ہمارے قومی شاعر ہیں۔ وہ سیالکوٹ میں پیدا ہوئے۔ ابتدائی تعلیم بھی وہاں ہی سے حاصل کی۔ اس کے بعد لاہور چلے آئے جہاں سے انہوں نے فلسفے میں ایم اے کیا۔ کچھ عرصہ وہ گورنمنٹ کالج میں پروفیسر رہے۔ پھر وہ انگلستان چلے گئے۔ انگلستان سے واپسی پر انہوں نے لاہور میں وکالت شروع کی لیکن ان کو یہ کام پسند نہ آیا۔ ان کی زیادہ دلچسپی شاعری اور قومی مسائل میں تھی۔

### English Translation

Allam Iqbal is our national poet. He was born in Sialkot. He got his early education there. After that, he came to Lahore where he passed his M.A in Philosophy. He worked as a professor in Government College for some time. Then he went to England. On returning, he started law practice in Lahore but he did not like this job. His chief interest was poetry and national issues.

### Paragraph 10

مجھے کتابیں پڑھنے کا بڑا شوق ہے۔ اس لیے اپنا فارغ وقت زیادہ تر کالج لائبریری میں گزارتا ہوں۔ میں گھنٹوں بیٹھا کتابوں کا مطالعہ کرتا ہوں اور دنیا کے عظیم عالموں سے استفادہ کرتا ہوں۔ بعض دفعہ سوچتا ہوں کہ طلباء کی اکثریت لائبریری میں کیوں نہیں آتی؟ یہ جگہ دیر ان کیوں ہے؟ اگر طلباء میں مطالعہ کا شوق پیدا ہو جائے تو ہمارا ملک دن دو گنی رات چو گنی ترقی کرے گا۔

### English Translation

I am fond of reading books. That's why I spend my most of the time in the college library. I keep on reading for hours and benefit myself from the great scholars of the world. Sometimes I wonder why the majority of the students does not come to the library? Why is this place deserted? If students had an interest in reading, our country will progress by leaps and bounds.

### Paragraph 11

ایک مورخ اپنے عہد کی سچی اور مکمل تصویر پیش کرتا ہے۔ وہ کوئی جھوٹی بات نہیں لکھتا اور وہ کسی بات کو دہراتا نہیں۔ وہ کسی کے خلاف تعصب نہیں رکھتا۔ کبھی کبھی دو اچھے مورخ ایک دوسرے سے اتفاق نہیں کرتے۔ وہ ایک ہی منظر دیکھتے ہیں اور مختلف داستانیں بیان کرتے ہیں۔ وجہ یہ ہے کہ مورخ بھی انسان ہوتے ہیں مشینیں نہیں۔ انسان ایک دوسرے سے مختلف ہوتے ہیں اور چیزوں کو مختلف زاویوں سے دیکھتے ہیں۔ اس لیے مورخ کی شخصیت اس کی تحریر سے غیر حاضر نہیں ہوتی ہے۔

### English Translation:

A historian presents a true and complete picture of his age. He neither writes false things nor repeat the things. He has no prejudice against anyone. Sometimes two credible historians do not agree with each other. they see a single picture and write different stories. The reason is that historians are human and not the machines. Humans are different from one another and see the things from different angles. That is why a historian's personality is not missing in his writings.

### Paragraph 12

آبادی میں اضافے کی بڑی وجہ یہ ہے کہ ان لوگوں کی تعداد جو کسی سال میں پیدا ہوئے ہیں زیادہ ہے اس تعداد سے جو مرتے ہیں یعنی شرح پیدائش اور شرح اموات کے درمیان فرق بڑا واضح ہے۔ مغربی اقوام میں شرح اموات میں کمی کے ایک عرصہ بعد شرح پیدائش میں بھی کمی کر دی گئی ہے تاکہ اب آبادی زیادہ تیزی سے نہ بڑھتی رہے۔

### English Translation:

A major reason for the increase in population is that the number of people who are born in a year is higher than the number of people who die. It means that there is a significant difference between birth rate and death rate. In western countries, the birthrate has also reduced after a decrease in death rate so that the population may not keep increasing rapidly.

### Paragraph 13

کھیل انسانی زندگی میں بہت اہمیت رکھتے ہیں۔ یہ انسان کے لیے تفریح، صحت اور خوشی کا سبب ہیں۔ اس دنیا میں حقیقی خوشی ناپید ہے۔ انسان اکثر پریشانیوں میں الجھا رہتا ہے۔ ایسی صورت حال میں کھیل تریاق کا کام دیتے ہیں۔ اس کی پریشانیاں عارضی طور پر ختم ہو جاتی ہیں۔ کھیل صحت مند رہنے کا حقیقی ذریعہ ہیں۔

### English Translation:

Games and sports have great significance in our life. they are the source of entertainment, health, and happiness for man. The real happiness does not exist in this world. Man is often entangled in worries. In this situation, games and sports work as an antidote. His worries disappear temporarily. Games and sports are the real sources of keeping healthy.

### Paragraph 14

حقوق و فرائض کا چولی دامن کا ساتھ ہے۔ جب ایک فرد اپنے فرائض ادا نہیں کرتا دوسرے کے حقوق پامال ہوتے ہیں۔ اسلام نے حقوق و فرائض کی حدود متعین کر دی ہیں۔ مگر حقوق عموماً پامال ہوتے رہتے ہیں۔ سرکاری افسران آرام طلب ہو چکے ہیں۔ وہ عوام کی فلاح کی طرف کوئی توجہ نہیں دیتے۔ لہذا عوام کے مسائل حل ہونے کی بجائے آئے روز بڑھتے جاتے ہیں۔

### English Translation:

Rights and duties go side by side. When a person does not perform his duty the other's rights are depreciated. Islam has established the limits of rights and duties. But rights are usually depreciated. Government officials have become lazy. They do not pay attention to the welfare of the public. So, instead of being solved, the problems of people are increasing day by day.

### Paragraph 15

میں اپنے ملک سے بہت محبت کرتا ہوں۔ اس میں چار موسموں پائے جاتے ہیں۔ اس میں میدان، پہاڑ، سمندر اور دریا سب موجود ہیں۔ اس میں کشمیر جیسی خوبصورت وادی بھی ہے۔ اس میں روہی جیسا صحرا بھی آتا ہے۔ پاکستان کی ان خوبیوں کی وجہ سے بہت سے لوگ باہر سے یہاں پر تفریح کے لیے بھی آتے ہیں۔ اگر ہم سیاحوں کو مزید سہولیات فراہم کریں تو پاکستان زرمبادلہ بھی کما سکتا ہے۔

### English Translation

I love my country. It has four seasons. It has all plains, hills, seas, and rivers. It has a beautiful valley of Kashmir. It has a dessert "Rohi". Owing to these features of Pakistan, many foreigners visit Pakistan for recreation. If we give more facilities to the tourists, Pakistan can earn foreign exchange.

### Translation English to Urdu

#### Paragraph 1

Paper money is a funny thing. The only value it really has is given to it by society. This value can change rapidly under certain conditions. Learn more about hyperinflation in the Weimar Republic after World War I

#### Paragraph 2

Garbage cans are not magical portals. Trash does not disappear when you toss it in a can. Yet, the average American throws away an estimated 1,600 pounds of waste each year. If there are no magic garbage fairies, where does all that trash go? There are four methods to managing waste: recycling, landfilling, composting, and incinerating. Each method has its strengths and weaknesses. Let's take a quick look at each.

#### Paragraph 3

Recycling is the process of turning waste into new materials. For example, used paper can be turned into paperboard, which can be used to make book covers. Recycling can reduce pollution, save materials, and lower energy use. Yet, some argue that recycling wastes energy. They

believe that collecting, processing, and converting waste uses more energy than it saves. Still, most people agree that recycling is better for the planet than landfilling.

**Paragraph 4**

Between us there was, as I have already said somewhere, the bond of the sea. Besides holding our hearts together through long periods of separation, it had the effect of making us tolerant of each other's yarns-and even convictions. The Lawyer-the best of old fellows-had, because of his many years and many virtues, the only cushion on deck, and was lying on the only rug. The Accountant had brought out already a box of dominoes, and was toying architecturally with the bones. Marlow sat cross-legged right aft, leaning against the mizzen-mast. He had sunken cheeks, a yellow complexion, a straight back, an ascetic aspect, and, with his arms dropped, the palms of hands outwards, resembled an idol. The Director, satisfied the anchor had good hold, made his way aft and sat down amongst us. We exchanged a few words lazily

**Paragraph 5**

One thing that is easier to do is burning garbage. There are two main ways to incinerate waste. The first is to create or harvest a fuel from the waste, such as methane gas, and burn the fuel. The second is to burn the waste directly. The heat from the incineration process can boil water, which can power steam generators. Unfortunately, burning garbage pollutes the air. Also, some critics worry that incinerators destroy valuable resources that could be recycled.