

PEARSON EDUCATION AUSTRALIA

THE EASY WRITER
Formal writing for
academic purposes
3rd Edition

BY Winifred Belmont and Michael Sharkey



Copyright © 2011 Pearson Australia (a division of Pearson Australia Group Pty Ltd)

Pearson Australia
Unit 4, Level 3
14 Aquatic Drive
Frenchs Forest NSW 2086
Ph: 02 9454 2200
www.pearson.com.au

All rights reserved. Except under the conditions described in the Copyright Act 1968 of Australia and subsequent amendments, no part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the prior permission of the copyright owner.

Senior Consultant:	Danielle Woods
Managing Editor:	Jill Gillies
Senior Project Manager:	Lisa D’Cruz
Custom Project Editor:	Rochelle Deighton

Printed and bound in Australia by The SOS Print + Media Group.

1 2 3 4 5 15 14 13 12 11

ISBN: 978 1 4425 4926 5

Every effort has been made to trace and acknowledge copyright. However, should any infringement have occurred, the publishers tender their apologies and invite copyright owners to contact them.

 **PEARSON**
An imprint of Pearson Australia

CONTENTS

Introduction.....	1
Chapter 1: Simple sentences	7
Identifying the subject	
Count and non-count nouns	
Pronouns	
Articles	
Adjectives	
Other parts of speech that can act as adjectives	
Sentences with more than one subject	
Identifying verbs	
Tense	
Sentences with more than one verb	
Extra: Some conventions of formal writing	
Chapter 2: More about simple sentences	29
More about subjects	
Identifying subjects and verbs in sentences with prepositional phrases	
Identifying subjects and verbs in sentences with appositive phrases	
Identifying subjects and verbs in sentences beginning with 'There is', 'There was', 'There are' or 'There were'	
Extra: Sentences beginning with 'There is', 'There are', 'There was' or 'There were'	
More about verbs	
Adverbs	
Multi-word verbs	

Chapter 3: Subject-verb agreement.....	43
Simple present and simple past	
More about auxiliary verbs	
Making subjects and verbs agree in sentences where the subject is difficult to find	
Extra: Sentences beginning with ‘A number’ and ‘The number’	
Chapter 4: Fragments and phrases	53
Identifying and correcting fragments	
Correcting fragments in paragraphs	
Identifying phrases	
Extra: Sentences that begin with a present participial phrase	
Chapter 5: Compound sentences	65
First, and most common method of joining independent clauses	
Coordinating conjunctions	
Second method of joining independent clauses	
Adverbial conjunctions	
Extra: Using ‘however’	
Third method of joining independent clauses	
Summary: Coordination	
Chapter 6: Complex sentences	83
Subordinating conjunctions	
Forming a sentence using subordinating conjunctions	
Extra: Using ‘because to begin a sentence	
Relative pronouns	
Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses	
Testing for essential and non-essential elements	
Chapter 7: Fragments and run-ons	99
More about fragments	
Run-ons	
Extra: Sentences with more than two clauses	

Chapter 8: More about verbs..... 107

- The stem of the verb
- The formation of tenses
- Simple tenses
- Continuous forms of simple tenses
- Perfect tenses
- Continuous forms of perfect tenses
- Irregular verbs
- Using tenses
- Active voice
- Passive voice
- Extra: More about participial phrases
- Verb moods: Indicative mood and imperative mood
- Subjunctive mood
- Using the subjunctive mood

Chapter 9: Working with pronouns 139

- Pronoun case
- Using case accurately
- Extra: Note on 'among' and 'between'
- Reflexive pronouns
- Compound constructions
- Who, whom and whose
- Comparisons
- Pronoun-antecedent agreement
- Identifying and correcting number errors in pronoun-antecedent agreement

Chapter 10: Parallel construction 163

- Nouns in parallel
- Adjectives in parallel
- Verbs in parallel
- Infinitives in parallel
- Adverbs in parallel
- Prepositions in parallel

Participles in parallel
Gerunds in parallel
Sentences with coordinated words
Revising non-parallel sentences
Revising sentences with coordinating conjunctions
Clauses that begin with 'who' or 'which'
Avoiding anticlimax in parallel sentences
Extra: Modification

Chapter 11: Capitalisation and punctuation179

Capitalisation
Punctuation
The full stop
The comma
The colon
The semicolon
The apostrophe
Numerals in formal writing

Chapter 12: Word use and word choice191

Easily confused words
Over-used expressions
Cliché
Jargon
Tautology
Contracted words that should not appear in formal writing
Words that cause problems
Intensifiers that should be sparingly used
Superlative adjectives and adverbs
Extra: Differ from or differ to? Different from or different than?

Chapter 13: Using direct and indirect quotations . 215

Direct quotation
Short direct quotation
Longer direct quotation

Indirect quotation	
Paraphrasing	
Summarising	
When to cite the source of information	
Useful words for introducing quotations	
References or bibliography?	
Chapter 14: Paragraph structure 1	223
Definition of a paragraph	
How long should a paragraph be?	
The topic sentence and the controlling idea	
Developing paragraphs for unity, coherence, logic and relevance	
Transitions between sentences	
Six logical ways to connect sentences	
Narration paragraphs using historical recount	
Description paragraphs	
Explanation (process) paragraphs	
Classification and division paragraphs	
Definition paragraphs	
Comparison and contrast paragraphs	
Combined paragraphs	
Chapter 15: Paragraph structure 2	247
Cause and effect analysis	
Argument and persuasion	
Deductive and inductive reasoning	
Logical fallacies	
Chapter 16: The formal essay	263
Definition	
When to start the essay	
Stage 1: Understanding the question	
Instructional words	
Stage 2: Brainstorming the topic and working towards a thesis statement	

Stage 3: Researching and notetaking	
Stage 4: The essay plan – working out the order of presentation	
Stage 5: Refining the plan	
Stage 6: Structuring and writing the first draft	
Revising the draft	
Essay checklist	
Sample essay	
Answers	285
Index	322
Correction symbols	329

INTRODUCTION

No matter what discipline you are writing for, your choice of language, attention to detail and the appropriate conventions of writing, as well as the presentation of your work will indicate your attitude to your reader. Your reader may be your teacher or your potential employer.

Good writing is a skill that must be understood and mastered. Language is power, and mastery of language skills can make you a powerful person. Because you will be judged on your facility with language, you should aim to possess a good vocabulary and a sound sense of grammar and punctuation. If your work is sloppy, you will be judged as a sloppy person. Accurate spelling, punctuation and referencing are essential in formal academic writing. The ability to write formal academic essays demonstrates a sense of objectivity, coherence and unity in addressing a subject under investigation. Attention to detail also demonstrates your commitment to the subject and your respect for your reader.

Appropriate tone is a function of expression, and command of expression is a result of practice. The early chapters of this book focus on fundamental grammar that is the basis of all persuasive essays. Grammar

is not a dirty word. English grammar is a fascinating subject, and the more you get into it, the more fascinating it is.

This book does not attempt to deal with all aspects of English grammar. We have focused on the minimum requirements for accurate and concise formal writing. Unlike many other books about writing, our book emphasises the simple sentence because, from our experience, we have seen that this is where most writing problems occur. In order to know how English works, it is essential to have an understanding of the simple sentence. This is why the first four chapters of this book focus on the simple sentence, and why there are so many exercises in those chapters. If you have a thorough understanding of the simple sentence, the rest, including paragraphs and essays, becomes much easier. You do not have to do all the sentence exercises, but you should do as many as possible in order to master the concept. Full answers for all exercises are provided at the back of the book.

In each of the first twelve chapters you will find boxes labelled EXTRA. These boxes contain extra information that will help you polish your formal writing style.

If you carefully work through the exercises in this book, you will come to understand the difference between a piece of writing that is merely ‘acceptable’ and writing that is ‘accomplished’ and even ‘outstanding’. We recommend that you spend at least ten hours each week practising writing. This may include practice outside the scope of this book. At the end of this book, you will find a list of useful resources. Your university library and your local library also provide reference books on English grammar and expression, and you should browse widely in order to increase your language and writing skills.

This book’s English and academic usage is based on the standard Australian style specified in the *Style manual for authors, editors and printers*, 6th edition. If you buy no other style guide, we recommend that you buy this one and make it part of your professional library. You should also possess and frequently refer to a good dictionary of Australian

English. On-line dictionaries are no substitute for a hard-copy edition. We also suggest that you set your word-program to Australian spelling. If you do not know how to do this, ask your local computer boffin.

We hope *The Easy Writer* helps you to build confidence and skill. We welcome any feedback you might like to provide. Send any comments to us at the addresses below. Your assistance will be acknowledged in the next and any subsequent edition.

Winifred Belmont
wbelmont@une.edu.au

Michael Sharkey
michael.sharkey@bigpond.com

Armidale, December 2010

Permissions and acknowledgments

We acknowledge the following writers and publishers for permission to reproduce textual material.

Frank Brennan, SJ, *One land, one nation: Mabo – towards 2001*, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, 1995, p. 161. Reprinted by permission of University of Queensland Press.

Thomas Carefoot (adapted for Australian Conditions by Rodney D Simpson), *Seashore ecology*, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, 1985, p. 7. Reprinted by permission of University of Queensland Press.

Chris Cunningham, *Blue Mountains rediscovered: beyond the myths of early Australian exploration*, Kangaroo Press, Kenthurst, 1996, p. 35. Reprinted by permission of the author and Simon & Schuster Pty. Ltd.

John Ferry, *Colonial Armidale*, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, 1999, p. 219. Reprinted by permission of the author and University of Queensland Press.

Ken Fitch, 'Common Injuries to the Fast Bowler', in *Set the stumps flying: the science of fast bowling*, edited by Bruce Elliott, Daryl Foster & Brian Blanksby, University of Western Australia Press, Nedlands, 1989, p. 66.

CJ Gossip, *An introduction to French classical tragedy*, Macmillan, London, 1981, p. 24. Reprinted by permission of the author and Palgrave Macmillan.

IH Grenfell, *Armidale and District Historical Society Journal and Proceedings*, No. 16, January 1975, p. 41. Reprinted by permission of the author and Ian Johnstone and New England and District Historical Society.

Clive Hamilton, *Growth fetish*, Allen & Unwin, St Leonards, 2003, pp. 4-5. Reprinted by permission of Allen & Unwin.

Paula Hamilton, 'Journalists, Gender and Workplace Culture 1900-1940', in Ann Curthoys & Julianne Schultz, eds, *Journalism: print, politics and popular culture*, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, 1999, p. 111. Reprinted by permission of University of Queensland Press.

Patricia Harrington and Betty Huxley, *Judo: a pictorial manual*, Kangaroo Press, Kenthurst, 1987, p. 14. Reprinted by permission of the authors and Simon & Schuster Pty. Ltd

Megan Hungerford, 'Why study prehistory?', *Armidale and District Historical Society Journal and Proceedings*, No. 18, January 1975, p. 3. Reprinted by permission of Ian Johnstone and New England and District Historical Society.

Gisela Kaplan and Lesley Rogers, *Birds: their habits and skills*, Allen & Unwin, Crows Nest, 2001, p. 8. Reprinted by permission of the authors and Allen & Unwin.

Maurice Kelly, *View from Olympus: a history of ancient Greece*, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne, 1988, p. 131. Reprinted by permission of the author and Pearson Education Australia.

Eric Livingston, *An anthropology of reading*, Indiana University Press, Bloomington, 1995, p. xvii. Reprinted by permission of the author and Indiana University Press.

RH Luke & AG McArthur, *Bushfires in Australia*, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, 1978, p. 23, copyright Commonwealth of Australia reproduced by permission.

Mary Mackay, 'Almost dancing: Thea Proctor and the modern woman', in *Wallflowers and witches: women and culture in Australia 1910-1945*, ed. Maryanne Dever, University of Queensland Press, St Lucia, 1994. pp. 32-33. Reprinted by permission of University of Queensland Press.

Other acknowledgements: Steve Harris, Angela Hoskins, Elizabeth Hale, Nicolle Kennedy, Nic Holland, Cathy Quinn, Terry-Anne Keyes, Darius Erwin, Karen Arnold, Brandt Lewis, Maurice Kelly, Natalie Edwards, Des Mulchay, Deborah Green, Rebekah Prendergast, Joanna Henryks, Amanda Baldwin, Lauren Wise, Kylie Munce, Gavin Helm-Smith, Jessica Sanderson, Elizabeth Hardy, Gavin Austin, Pamela Surin, Rose Williamson.



Chapter 1: Simple sentences

In this chapter, you will be introduced to the simple sentence and some of its component parts including subjects, verbs, nouns, pronouns, articles and adjectives.

A simple sentence must have a **subject** and a **verb**, and it must make complete sense; that is, the reader or listener is not left wondering ‘Who?’, ‘What?’ or ‘How?’ A sentence must begin with a capital letter and end with a full stop. Consider the following.

Emma feels.

Emma feels happy.

The first example has a subject (Emma) and a verb (feels), but the reader is left wondering what ‘Emma feels’. The second example is a complete sentence because it includes the missing information. The sentence expresses a complete idea.

IDENTIFYING THE SUBJECT

To identify the subject, ask yourself ‘Who or what is the sentence about?’ The answer to this question will be a **noun** or a **pronoun**.

Nouns

Like many grammatical terms, the word 'noun' is derived from the Latin. The Latin word 'nomen' means 'name'. Nouns name things, persons, places and abstractions (qualities, feelings, passions, attributes and ideas).

Things: table, freeway, coat, plant, mountain

Persons: Jonathan, student, accountant, Einstein, actor

Places: Sydney, Kalgoorlie, bedroom, cinema, casino

Qualities, feelings, attributes: redness, tenderness, superiority

Ideas: civilisation, cynicism, post-Modernism, idealism, infinity

Names of people and places are called **proper nouns**. **Proper nouns** usually begin with a capital letter.

Proper nouns: Jack Moore, Sharon, Australia, Cairns, Hong Kong

The names of some organisations and political and cultural movements also start with capital letters, but this is the result of convention rather than a rule.

United Nations, World Health Organization, Liberalism, Amnesty International, World Trade Organization

Such terms are sometimes spelled without capital letters, so it is advisable to check which conventions are preferred by the intended audience.

COUNT AND NON-COUNT NOUNS

Most nouns have a singular form and a plural form. These are called **count nouns**.

singular	plural
book	books
potato	potatoes
tooth	teeth
medium	media
criterion	criteria

Some nouns have only one form. These are called **non-count nouns**.

information, equipment, technology, furniture, applause,
leisure, clothing, homework, luggage

In some cases, non-count nouns can be referred to in the plural (technologies, knowledges). This varies from discipline to discipline.

Pronouns

‘Pro’ is a Latin word that means ‘for’, and a **pronoun** is a word that can replace a noun; that is, it can stand in for a noun. Pronouns are sometimes referred to as **noun equivalents**.

Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns are used to identify persons or things without using their names. They are usually classified in the following way.

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I	we
<i>second person</i>	you	you
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it	they

These forms are called **subjective forms** because they can act as **subjects**.

‘It’ is one of the most frequently used pronouns. ‘It’ can be used to refer to anything that is not usually referred to as ‘he’ or ‘she’. ‘They’ can be used to refer to both people and things.

In formal writing, ‘I’, ‘you’ and ‘we’ should be avoided.

Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns indicate possession or ownership.

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	mine	ours
<i>second person</i>	yours	yours
<i>third person</i>	his, hers, its	theirs

These pronouns may stand alone, but they must refer to a noun. 'His is the best.' is fairly meaningless unless the reader knows what 'his' refers to. In formal writing, 'mine', 'yours' and 'ours' should be avoided.

Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns always refer to the quantity of people or things, without identifying any specific person or thing.

Singular indefinite pronouns

each, anyone, anybody, anything, everyone, everybody, everything, either, neither, none, nobody, nothing, no one, another, someone, somebody, something

Plural indefinite pronouns

both, few, many, several

Mixed (singular or plural) indefinite pronouns

all, any, more, most, none, some

Depending on the usage, mixed indefinite pronouns can be used to suggest singular or plural quantities.

Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns indicate physical or temporal proximity. 'This' and 'these' indicate nearness. 'That' and 'those' indicate distance.

singular	plural
this	these
that	those

These pronouns may stand alone, but they must refer to a noun. 'That is the most expensive.' is fairly meaningless unless the reader knows what 'that' refers to.

EXERCISE 1

Underline the subject in each sentence, and indicate the kind of subject. Be as specific as possible.

**examples**

She speaks Tetum. — *personal pronoun, third person singular*

Elephants are intelligent animals. — *common noun, plural*

Nothing remains the same. — *indefinite pronoun, singular*

This is an objective test. — *demonstrative pronoun, singular*

James plays the guitar. — *proper noun, singular*

1. They left before sunrise. _____
2. Australia is a rich country. _____
3. These look interesting. _____
4. Keiko climbed the Sydney Harbour Bridge. _____
5. Love conquers all. _____
6. Anything is possible. _____
7. She hates soap operas. _____
8. Someone damaged the photocopier. _____
9. Museums are popular with tourists. _____
10. Sydney is the capital of New South Wales. _____

EXERCISE 2

Underline the subject in each sentence, and indicate the kind of subject. Be as specific as possible.



1. Memories are priceless. _____
2. Everything is expensive. _____

3. He went to Cairns. _____
4. Many looked pale. _____
5. Goats eat almost anything. _____
6. Sam Jones is a politician. _____
7. Applause is always welcome. _____
8. Dogs are popular pets. _____
9. Newcastle is Australia's sixth-largest city. _____
10. That was a surprise. _____



EXERCISE 3

Underline the subject in each sentence, and indicate the kind of subject. Be as specific as possible.

1. Both are correct. _____
2. Earthquakes are rare in Australia. _____
3. Nothing is impossible. _____
4. Kakadu National Park is famous. _____
5. They read the article. _____
6. Safety was a priority. _____
7. Experience is the best teacher. _____
8. This is the best. _____
9. Echidnas are shy animals. _____
10. Each deserves praise. _____

EXERCISE 4

Underline the subject in each sentence, and indicate the kind of subject. Be as specific as possible.



1. Bushfires kill wildlife. _____
2. No one left the room. _____
3. It covers a large area. _____
4. Mt Isa has a hot, dry climate. _____
5. Few were available. _____
6. Jobs remain scarce. _____
7. These are unsuitable. _____
8. Pollution is a serious problem. _____
9. Theirs arrived yesterday. _____
10. Something is missing. _____

EXERCISE 5

Underline the subject in each sentence, and indicate the kind of subject. Be as specific as possible.



1. Everyone expects a holiday. _____
2. Customers have fewer choices. _____
3. They introduced new technology. _____
4. Some call him a dictator. _____
5. Attitudes exert a powerful influence. _____
6. Urbanisation increases the demand for water. _____
7. His is the winner. _____

8. New Zealand is an important trading partner. _____
9. Penguins are usually monogamous. _____
10. More is expected tomorrow. _____

MORE ABOUT SUBJECTS

In the examples above, the subject appears at the beginning of the sentence, so it is very easy to identify. In most cases, however, one or more words may precede the subject. These are most commonly **articles**, **adjectives** or **possessive pronouns**.

Articles

Articles indicate whether the noun is a specific or a general example. There are three articles: 'a', 'an' and 'the'. 'A' and 'an' are indefinite articles; 'the' is the definite article. Consider the following.

A chair usually has four legs. – *general*

The chair is expensive. – *specific*

Chairs are useful items. – *general*

The chairs are very comfortable. – *specific*

'An' is generally used before a vowel (an eyebrow, an interesting book).

'An' is not used before 'u' where the 'u' is pronounced 'you' (a university, a unit).

'An' is not used before 'e' where the 'e' is pronounced 'you' (a European, a ewe).

'An' is used before 'h' where the 'h' is silent (an honest man BUT a high mountain).

In modern usage, 'a' is generally used before 'history' and 'hotel' because the 'h' is no longer regarded as silent.

Adjectives

Adjectives give more information about a noun; that is, an adjective modifies a noun. Consider the following. The subject in each sentence is underlined, and the adjective is in *italic* type.

Hot gas escaped from the valve.

Physical factors determined the outcome.

Angry demonstrators gathered outside the embassy.

Twenty-six students attended the lecture.

A dense brown haze hung over the city.

An adjective usually appears before the noun it modifies, but it may appear after the verb and refer back to the noun or pronoun it modifies. Consider the following. The subject is underlined, the verb is in **bold** type, and the adjective is in *italic* type.

The paper **is** *blue*.

It **is** *blue*.

The water **was** *cold*.

It **was** *cold*.

The children **are** *hungry*.

They **are** *hungry*.

Most adjectives have three forms: **positive**, **comparative** and **superlative**.

positive	comparative	superlative
safe	safer	safest
strong	stronger	strongest
easy	easier	easiest
thick	thicker	thickest
warm	warmer	warmest

Some adjectives form the comparative and superlative with 'more' and 'most'.

positive	comparative	superlative
expensive	more expensive	most expensive
skilful	more skilful	most skilful
important	more important	most important
harmful	more harmful	most harmful

Some adjectives are irregular, and their comparative and superlative forms are quite different.

positive	comparative	superlative
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
many	more	most

The **positive** is used when referring to a single item.

A fast car turned the corner.

The **comparative** is used when referring to one of two items.

A faster car passed it.

The **superlative** is used when referring to one of three or more items.

The *fastest* car won the race.

Note that an item preceded by a superlative will take 'the'.

OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH THAT CAN ACT AS ADJECTIVES

Nouns

A **noun** can act as an adjective. Consider the following. The subject in each sentence is underlined, and the noun acting as an adjective is in *italic* type.

Elephants are pachyderms.

Elephant seals live in colonies.

Leisure is a growth industry.

Leisure activities provide opportunities for relaxation.

In general, when a noun is acting as an adjective, the singular form of the noun is used.

Possessive pronouns

A **possessive pronoun** acts as an adjective when the pronoun precedes the noun it modifies. Consider the following. The subject in each sentence is underlined, the verb is in **bold** type, and the noun acting as an adjective is in *italic* type.

Their results **were** a surprise.

His suggestions **impressed** the interviewers.

Demonstrative pronouns

A **demonstrative pronoun** acts as an adjective when the pronoun precedes the noun it modifies. Consider the following. The subject in each sentence is underlined, the verb is in **bold** type, and the demonstrative pronoun acting as an adjective is in *italic* type.

This picture **is** famous.

That book **is** the most expensive.

Those students **are** late for class.

These magazines **are** expensive.

Indefinite pronouns

Some **indefinite pronouns** can act as adjectives. An indefinite pronoun acts as an adjective when the pronoun precedes the noun it modifies. Consider the following. The subject in each sentence is underlined, the verb is in **bold** type, and the indefinite pronoun acting as an adjective is in *italic* type.

All children **require** love.

Each employee **received** a bonus.

Many animals **are** colour-blind.

Most plants **contain** chlorophyll.

Both proposals **were** unacceptable.

Verb forms

Some **verb forms** can act as adjectives. You will learn more about these forms in later chapters. Consider the following. The subject in each sentence is underlined, the verb is in **bold** type, and the verb form acting as an adjective is in *italic* type.

The *exhausted runner* **fell** to the ground.

The *spinning motion* **turns** the generator.

The *rising prices* **affected** their standard of living.

Motivated students **achieve** better results.

A *growing child* **requires** an adequate protein intake.



EXERCISE 6

Underline the subject in each sentence.

examples

New ideas are exciting.

That table is an antique.

The heat was unbearable.

Her younger brother lives in Perth.

The economic indicators are positive.

1. The dog family has a long and interesting history.
2. This idea came from a newspaper article.
3. Most Australians are moderate or occasional drinkers.
4. A chronological approach suits a biography.
5. Their diet consists of fish.
6. A large crowd gathered in the courtyard.
7. The events occurred a century ago.
8. This book has a simple structure.
9. Colour reproduction remains a complex process.
10. Their expectations were unrealistic.

EXERCISE 7

Underline the subject of each sentence.

1. A thermometer measures temperature.
2. Close relationships demand self-disclosure.
3. The general store was the main feature of all country towns.
4. All behaviour has a biological basis.
5. Individual tastes vary widely.
6. Different plants have very different life cycles.
7. Advertising costs were high.
8. Box jellyfish stings are nearly always fatal.
9. Photosensitive film layers form the basis of colour film.
10. The ancient Phoenicians built the first efficient sailing ships.



EXERCISE 8

Underline the subject of each sentence.

1. Temperature extremes have adverse effects on animal reproduction.
2. The recorded sound is quite remarkable.



3. The latest results show important variations in the rates of growth.
4. Desert climates have less than 25 centimetres of rain in a year.
5. The songs explore themes of distance and remoteness.
6. An average day involves the performance of many routine activities.
7. Feudal society was static.
8. The first true cities appeared about 5,000 years ago.
9. All vegetables are important sources of dietary fibre.
10. Suspended sediment is a major polluter of water.



EXERCISE 9

Underline the subject of each sentence.

1. That clarinettist auditioned for the orchestra.
2. Some ancient societies were matriarchies.
3. Environmental conditions constrain human activity.
4. The small company was no longer viable.
5. An average reader reads at the rate of 300 words a minute.
6. Mobile libraries overcome the barriers of distance and remoteness.
7. The simplest ideas are sometimes the best.
8. Some shopkeepers specialise in organic vegetables.
9. Transportation systems vary from country to country.
10. These latest employment statistics are a bad sign.



EXERCISE 10

Underline the subject of each sentence.

1. Eucalyptus trees produce oils of varying composition.
2. The most recent version is by Christopher Lack.
3. The average surface temperature is 15 degrees Celsius.
4. The United Nations has its headquarters in New York.

5. Many native Australian animals are nocturnal.
6. Each chapter contains exercises and activities.
7. Her favourable comments encouraged them.
8. An enthusiastic audience greeted the performers.
9. The bad weather continued for four days.
10. Every species interacts with other species.

SENTENCES WITH MORE THAN ONE SUBJECT

A simple sentence can have more than one subject. Consider the following. The subjects in each sentence are underlined.

Goats and sheep are ruminants.

Primary schools and main roads are bad neighbours.

Kangaroos, wallabies and wombats browse on grasses and shrubs.

Where there are more than two subjects, a comma is used to separate the items and 'and' is used between the last two items. Note, however, that there is no comma after the second last item.

EXERCISE 11

Underline the subjects in the following sentences.

1. People and situations differ.
2. Valleys and floodplains are popular places for human habitation.
3. The platypus and the echidna are monotremes.
4. Sapphires and rubies are varieties of the mineral corundum.
5. Growth and development are a natural part of life.
6. Socialisation and enculturation are not identical.
7. Discussion and recognition are only the beginning.
8. Whales and dolphins belong to the order Cetacea.
9. Heating, transport and industry cause air pollution.
10. Both Steven and Patrick are talented tennis players.





EXERCISE 12

Underline the subjects in the following sentences.

1. Noise researchers and hearing specialists recognise ringing ears and temporary hearing loss as signs of auditory fatigue.
2. Hailstorms and strong winds damage ripe fruit.
3. Many plants and animals are rich in oils and fats.
4. The world's top sportsmen and sportswomen are among the highest paid individuals in the world.
5. All dyes and most pigments are complex organic compounds.
6. Social behaviour and sexual reproduction depend on cooperation.
7. Chapatis, rotis and nan are all traditional Indian flat breads.
8. Culture and personality are dependent on one another.
9. All sea fish and some sea birds drink seawater.
10. Growth, renewal and repair are fundamental features of all human life.

Identifying Verbs

The importance of **verbs** is indicated by the derivation of 'verb' from the Latin 'verbum', meaning 'word'. Without verbs, there would be no such thing as a sentence.

Most commonly, a verb indicates what the subject does. Consider the following. The verbs are in **bold** type.

He **walks** to the library.

The student **leaves** the office.

She **waters** the plants.

The men **run** along the track.

They **meet** in Darwin.

Many verbs, however, do not indicate an obvious action; instead, they indicate a state of ‘having’ or ‘being’.

She **feels** sad.

Everyone **trusts** him.

Jack **likes** Thai food.

The tiger **is** hungry.

He **has** talent.

TENSE

As well as indicating action, ‘being’ or ‘having’, verbs can show **time** and **duration**. This is called **tense**. Single word verbs are either in the **simple present tense** or in the **simple past tense**. Consider the following. The verbs are in **bold** type.

present tense
(now)

She **walks** to the library.

The student **leaves** the office.

She **waters** the plants.

They **run** along the track.

They **meet** in Darwin.

She **feels** sad.

Everyone **trusts** him.

Jack **likes** Thai food.

The tiger **is** hungry.

He **has** talent.

simple past tense
(*in the past*)

She **walked** to the library.

The student **left** the office.

She **watered** the plants.

They **ran** along the track.

They **met** in Darwin.

She **felt** sad.

Everyone **trusted** him.

Jack **liked** Thai food.

The tiger **was** hungry.

He **had** talent.

Verbs can be divided into **regular verbs** and **irregular verbs**.

The **simple past tense** of a **regular verb** ends in ‘ed’. In the examples above, ‘walk’, ‘water’, ‘trust’ and ‘like’ are **regular verbs**.

The **simple past tense** of an **irregular verb** may be quite different from the present tense form. In the examples above, ‘leave’, ‘run’, ‘meet’, ‘feel’, ‘have’, ‘is’ (a form of the verb ‘be’) are **irregular verbs**. (A list of the most common irregular verbs is given in Chapter 8.)



EXERCISE 13

Each of the following sentences contains a single verb. Circle the verb in each sentence.

1. They adopted two strategies.
2. Different plants have very different lifecycles.
3. Most Australians live in cities or towns.
4. Bread comes in every shape and size.
5. The Prime Minister made a short speech.
6. Human beings are about 20 per cent carbon.
7. Trees reduce the speed of the wind.
8. Forests provide habitats for wildlife.
9. The arteries carry blood to all parts of the body.
10. Rainforests are spectacular environments.



EXERCISE 14

Each of the following sentences contains a single verb. Circle the verb in each sentence.

1. The learner chooses the correct answer.
2. Noise pollution is a serious environmental concern.
3. Many people criticised his proposal.
4. Wetlands provide living space for many species of animal life.
5. The people move their goods with them.
6. Coffee originated in Arabia.
7. Bureaucracies display a tendency toward oligarchy.
8. The same problem exists in rivers.
9. Plants are the basis of all food webs.
10. Specialisation makes technological progress possible.

EXERCISE 15

Each of the following sentences contains a single verb. Circle the verb in each sentence.



1. High buildings create wind tunnels.
2. They have a number of important characteristics.
3. Kakadu National Park attracts many tourists.
4. None has the appeal of the coral islands.
5. Most ski resorts run programs for children.
6. Every experiment begins with a problem.
7. Pasteurisation destroys pathogenic bacteria.
8. The activity practises both concepts.
9. This result is satisfactory.
10. Many developing countries depend on imported oil.

EXERCISE 16

Each of the following sentences contains a single verb. Circle the verb in each sentence.



1. All human activity has an effect on the global water cycle.
2. Ancient Greek doctors identified several types of mental illness.
3. Different land surfaces produce distinctive microclimates.
4. Package tours retain their mass appeal.
5. Other areas remained stable.
6. Most ordinary car engines have four or six cylinders.
7. The education program targets farm workers.
8. Another camera records a different background.
9. Effective management involves a focus on the actions of the individual.
10. The region encompasses a diverse range of land uses.



EXERCISE 17

Each of the following sentences contains a single verb. Circle the verb in each sentence.

1. The Peloponnesian War lasted for twenty-six years.
2. His attempts were unsuccessful.
3. Urbanisation is responsible for this pattern.
4. Large north-facing windows assist with heating during winter.
5. Land clearing increases the rate of run-off.
6. Temporary work suits some workers.
7. Desertification is widespread in Africa.
8. The habitats support more than 350 bird species.
9. These unified the people in a common cause.
10. Forty-one endangered species rely on brugalow habitats.

SENTENCES WITH MORE THAN ONE VERB

A simple sentence may contain more than one verb. Consider the following. The verbs are in **bold** type.

The beach **flattened** and **widened**.

The children **hopped** and **skipped** around the room.

The department **initiates** and **funds** research projects.

This approach **creates** markets and **widens** choice.



EXERCISE 18

Each of the following sentences contains more than one verb. Circle the verbs in each sentence.

1. The receiver selects and amplifies the signal.
2. The teachers plan and participate in class excursions.
3. The parents assign tasks and monitor the activities.

4. Babies copy and learn the mannerisms, expressions and speech of those around them.
5. The government encouraged and assisted the refugees.
6. The students read and discuss the poem.
7. Technicians install and maintain the computers.
8. Social behaviour occurs in animals and has evolutionary origins.
9. The researchers observed the lecturers and assessed their performance.
10. The catalogue documents and illustrates more than two thousand works.

EXTRA

SOME CONVENTIONS OF FORMAL WRITING

- Contractions should not be used in formal writing. If you abide by this convention, you will avoid many errors.

It's should never be used in formal writing. If you mean 'it is', write 'it is'. The possessive pronoun is always 'its'.
- Abbreviations should not be used in formal writing. This means that you will never use 'e.g.', 'i.e.', 'etc.', 'N.B.' or any other shortened forms.
- First and second person personal pronouns should not be used in formal writing. This means that you should avoid the use of 'I', 'you' and 'we'. Formal writing should be objective.
- The imperative should not be used in formal writing – see p. 136.
- Question marks and exclamation marks should not be used in formal writing – see p. 181.





Chapter 2: More about simple sentences

In this chapter, you will learn more about simple sentences and their component parts including prepositional phrases, appositive phrases, auxiliary and main verbs, verb groups and adverbs.

MORE ABOUT SUBJECTS

In the examples in Chapter 1, the subject was always at, or very near, the beginning of the sentence, and the verb was immediately after the subject. This is not always the case. Consider the following examples. The subject is underlined, and the verb is in **bold** type.

Each of the houses **is** a detached single-family home.

Many of these activities **require** oral or written work.

Cold water from the main pipe **fills** the tank.

The most striking difference between bricks **is** the colour variation.

The management of forests **is** a complex issue.

In order to identify the subject and the verb in such sentences, it is essential to identify the prepositional phrases.

A prepositional phrase consists of **a preposition + a noun or pronoun and any words that modify it**. Consider the following prepositional phrases.

in the 19th century
since federation
at all levels
because of this
after the Second World War
with it
throughout the region
within the local economy
of non-perishable items
around them

A prepositional phrase may be followed by a second or even a third prepositional phrase.

two prepositional phrases

on behalf of the property owner
at the expense of the environment
from Melbourne to Sydney
at the forefront of technological innovation
in the lower reaches of the river

three prepositional phrases

of new businesses in the peripheral parts of the city
in terms of access to resources
with the increase in the size of the population
for 200 kilometres along the northeast coast of Queensland
of three nations at different stages of the demographic cycle

Common prepositions

about, above, across, after, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, despite, down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, onto, out, outside, over, past, since, through, throughout, to, toward, under, underneath, unlike, until, up, upon, with, within, without

Prepositional combinations

ahead of, because of, except for, instead of, similar to

IDENTIFYING SUBJECTS AND VERBS IN SENTENCES WITH PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

To identify the subject of a sentence that contains one or more prepositional phrases, look for the following patterns. In the examples, the subject is underlined, the verb is in **bold** type, and all prepositional phrases are in *italic* type.

S + prepositional phrase + V + the rest.

The subject is separated from the verb by one prepositional phrase. Note that 'the rest' may also include one or more prepositional phrases.

The climate *in Tasmania* **is** too cold *for citrus trees*.

Some *of the birds* **are** migratory.

The effect *on the economy* **was** negligible.

The cost *of transportation* **varies** *from state to state*.

This kind *of rhetoric* **resembles** propaganda.

The subject may be separated from the verb by more than one prepositional phrase.

The flow *of currents in the Antarctic Ocean* **is** complex.

A lack *of understanding of the natural environment* **produced** unfavourable effects.

Prepositional phrase, S + V + the rest.

The subject is preceded by one prepositional phrase.

In 1876, he returned to Melbourne.

Between 1879 and 1893, Joseph Conrad visited Australia six times.

In some areas, the tourist industry is the major source of employment.

After three days, the survivors reached the coast.

The subject may be preceded by more than one prepositional phrase.

In the course of industrialisation, social classes change their character.

With the initial cleaning of the painting, restorers uncovered new information about the artist's life and methods.

Prepositional phrase, S + prepositional phrase + V + the rest.

The subject is preceded and followed by a prepositional phrase.

A century ago, most people in the industrialised world worked on farms.

Between 1990 and 1992, the maintenance of water quality was a serious problem.

For this reason, the excavation of the site recommenced in the spring.

On many occasions, the farmers in the area voiced their concerns.

During the 1950s and 1960s, many immigrants from continental Europe arrived in Australia.

The subject may be preceded and followed by more than one prepositional phrase.

The rule is that the subject is NEVER found in a prepositional phrase.

EXERCISE 1

In each of the following sentences, cross out the prepositional phrases. Then underline the subject, and circle the verb.



1. The size of the audience reflects the popularity of the speaker.
2. Most of the particles passed through the sieve.
3. Natural gas supplies in Australia come from a number of sources.
4. With only 26 square kilometres of land, Tuvalu is one of the smallest independent countries in the world.
5. Contemporary attitudes to the public environment have their origins in the past.
6. To Marx, capitalism represented a historical step towards the inevitable communist society.
7. People in industrialised countries eat too much salt.
8. The dull surface of the wood absorbed the light.
9. In the northern half of Australia, one of the major weather hazards is the tropical cyclone.
10. The great mountain ranges of the world contain some of the world's most spectacular scenery.

EXERCISE 2

In each of the following sentences, cross out the prepositional phrases. Then underline the subject, and circle the verb.



1. The commonest cause of death in the western world is heart disease.
2. In most societies, sharp differences in socialisation for females and males remain the norm.
3. The intersection of a number of forces brings people into the export economy.
4. The quality of service at the point of delivery is paramount to customers.
5. In pre-industrial societies, much of social life revolved around primary groups.

6. The primary driving force of the climate system is energy from the Sun.
7. The need for strength makes bones rigid.
8. This type of leader causes problems in sensitive situations.
9. Of all the revolutions in transport, the invention of the wheel 5000 years ago is the most important.
10. A network of dealers ships thousands of tonnes of fish into the main cities.



EXERCISE 3

In each of the following sentences, cross out the prepositional phrases. Then underline the subject, and circle the verb.

1. At the other end of the scale, some metals of lead, bismuth and cadmium melt at low temperatures.
2. In affluent countries, obesity is a serious problem.
3. Urban settlement in the Hervey Bay area began in the 1870s.
4. Many of the world's greatest cities owe their rise to trade.
5. In the lungs, blood absorbs oxygen from the air.
6. The human impact on tropical forests has a long history.
7. The rise of unemployment affected older people in different ways.
8. In a later study, they increased the number of participants.
9. At the other end of the scale, the movements are too slow.
10. The invention of the mechanised seed drill brought great changes to agriculture.

IDENTIFYING SUBJECTS AND VERBS IN SENTENCES WITH APPOSITIVE PHRASES

Sometimes, the subject and the verb are separated by extra information about the subject. This information is always separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. Consider the following. The subject is underlined, the verb is in **bold**, and the appositive phrase is in *italic* type.

The quince, *a sour fruit*, **is** similar to the apple.

Alexander Selkirk, *the real-life prototype of Robinson Crusoe*, **lived** alone as a castaway for five years.

The gorilla, *the largest living ape*, **is** a primate.

Sir William Herschel, *a British astronomer*, **described** the infrared part of the spectrum in 1800.

The rule is that the subject is NEVER in the appositive phrase.

EXERCISE 4

In each of the following sentences, cross out the appositive phrase. Then underline the subject, and circle the verb.

1. Lawrence Franklin, the author of the book, gave the keynote address.
2. The capybara, the world's largest rodent, reaches more than 130 centimetres in length.
3. The Great Australian Bight, the widest indentation in the Australian coastline, extends from Cape Carnot in South Australia to Cape Parsley in Western Australia.
4. Socrates, a teacher of ethical questions, influenced Plato's early thought.
5. Trade, the exchange of goods and services, is one of the most basic activities of humankind.
6. Brett Whiteley, one of Australia's most successful artists, held his first solo exhibition in London in 1961.
7. The Fairy Penguin, the smallest of the penguins, measures only 38-43 centimetres long.
8. Hobart, the capital of Tasmania, lies on the banks of the Derwent River.



9. Zoning, the regulation of the use of land and buildings, is the principal means of enforcing a scheme for land use.
10. The Jarrah, one of Australia's most valued hardwood trees, is a Eucalypt.

IDENTIFYING SUBJECTS AND VERBS IN SENTENCES BEGINNING WITH 'THERE IS', 'THERE WAS', 'THERE ARE' OR 'THERE WERE'

The usual word order does not apply to sentences beginning with 'There is', 'There was', 'There are' or 'There were'. In such sentences, the subject appears after the verb, and an article, pronoun or adjective may appear between the verb and the subject. Consider the following. The subject is underlined, and the verb is in **bold** type.

There **is** a severe shortage of qualified teachers.

There **are** many reasons for their poor performance.

There **are** many different types of farm.

There **was** an attempt on his life.

There **were** widespread fires in the eastern states of Australia in 1926.



EXERCISE 5

In each of the following sentences, underline the subject, and circle the verb.

1. There are three methods of payment.
2. There is limited access for large vehicles.
3. There are many species of domestic dogs.
4. There are several universal paradoxes.
5. There are many other influences at work within Australia.
6. There is an easy solution.
7. There are several explanations for longevity.
8. There is one electron in a hydrogen atom.

9. There are many complex problems.
10. There were twenty-five secondary schools in New Zealand in 1900.

EXTRA

SENTENCES BEGINNING WITH 'THERE IS', 'THERE ARE', 'THERE WAS' OR 'THERE WERE'

Sentences beginning with 'There is', 'There are', 'There was' or 'There were' should be used sparingly. The initial position carries emphasis, so it is better to use this position to convey important information. 'There is', 'There are', 'There was' and 'There were' do not convey specific information, and 'there' used in this way is often called a 'dummy' subject. In such sentences, the actual subject appears after the verb.



More about verbs

In many cases, a sentence contains a verb consisting of more than one word. Consider the following. The complete **verb group** is in **bold** type.

The telescope **is providing** high quality images.

The telescope **has provided** high quality images.

The telescope **will provide** high quality images.

A **verb group** may consist of a main verb preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs. The three main auxiliary verbs are 'be', 'have' and 'do'. Depending on usage, these verbs can be used as main verbs or auxiliary verbs. Consider the following.

She **is** the supervisor. — *main verb*

He **is** going to Paris. — *auxiliary verb*

They **have** two telescopes. — *main verb*

They **have** completed the assignment. — *auxiliary verb*

The other auxiliary verbs are ‘can’, ‘could’, ‘may’, ‘might’, ‘ought’, ‘must’, ‘shall’, ‘should’, and ‘would’. Consider the following examples. The subject is underlined, and the verb group is in **bold** type.

Heat shields **might protect** film from high temperatures.

The operation **could save** him.

Flying fish **can glide** for more than 30 seconds.

They **should consider** the alternatives.

A negative body image **may cause** depression.

Parts of ‘be’ and ‘have’ are used as auxiliary verbs in conjunction with a main verb to form different tenses. The auxiliary verb ‘will’ is used with a main verb to form the future tenses. Consider the following.

simple present	they work
present continuous	they are working
present perfect	they have worked
simple past	they worked
past continuous	they were working
past perfect	they had worked
simple future	they will work
future continuous	they will be working
future perfect	they will have worked

Note that ‘work’ is a regular verb.

Here is an example of an **irregular verb**.

simple present	they write
present continuous	they are writing
present perfect	they have written
simple past	they wrote
past continuous	they were writing
past perfect	they had written

simple future	they will write
future continuous	they will be writing
future perfect	they will have written

For more about verbs and tenses, see Chapter 8.

Adverbs

A verb group may be interrupted, usually by an **adverb**. The adverb provides more information about the verb; that is, it modifies the verb, but it is not part of the verb group. Consider the following. The verb group is in **bold** type, and the adverb is in *italic* type.

Snacks **will** *not* **compensate** for missed meals.

He **has** *never* **been** to a live theatre performance.

The author **has** *completely* **revised** the book.

The students **have** *already* **submitted** their assignments.

The children **cannot** **attend** the concert.

N.B. 'Can' is the only verb that adds 'not' in this way.

Auxiliary verbs and 'not' are sometimes used in contracted form (for example, 'he'll go' for 'he will go', 'he won't go' for 'he will not go'). These contractions are not used in formal writing.

Useful adverbs

not	almost
always	never
soon	often
now	seldom
sometimes	once
already	still

Many adverbs are formed by adding 'ly' to adjectives.

adjective	adverb
soft	softly
steady	steadily
dark	darkly
quick	quickly
skilful	skilfully

Some adjectives and adverbs have the same form.

He is a fast swimmer. — *adjective*

He swam fast. — *adverb*

Some adjectives and adverbs have very different forms.

She wrote a good essay. — *adjective*

She writes well. — *adverb*

It is often easy to identify the adverb in a sentence by asking 'how?', 'when?', 'where?', 'how far?' or 'how much?'

Like adjectives, most adverbs have three forms: **positive**, **comparative** and **superlative**, but in most cases, the comparative is formed with 'more', and the superlative is formed with 'most'. Consider the following.

positive	comparative	superlative
quickly	more quickly	most quickly
carefully	more carefully	most carefully
skilfully	more skilfully	most skilfully
beautifully	more beautifully	most beautifully

Some adverbs form the comparative with '-er', and the superlative with '-est'. Consider the following.

positive	comparative	superlative
fast	faster	fastest
long	longer	longest
soon	sooner	soonest

Some adverbs are irregular, and their comparative and superlative forms are quite different.

positive	comparative	superlative
well	better	best
badly	worse	worst
little	less	least

Some common adverbs have only one form. These include 'always', 'even', 'later', 'now', 'often', 'perhaps', 'seldom', 'still', 'then' and 'never'.

MULTI-WORD VERBS

Some multi-word verbs consist of a main verb (which may be preceded by auxiliaries), and a following word (usually a preposition).

He **took up** the offer.

Such verbs are very common in speech and in informal writing, but less common in formal writing. In formal writing, the sentence would be more acceptable if 'took up' were replaced by 'accepted'.

EXERCISE 6

Circle the verb group in each of the following sentences. Remember that adverbs are not part of the verb group.



examples

Kennedy **had reached** the mouth of the river.

The study of culture **does not occur** in a vacuum.

Life **has existed** on earth for over three billion years.

Political tensions and conflicts **may have** many causes.

He **has almost completed** his research.

1. Pakistan has been an independent state since 1947.
2. The driver of the van had not seen the small child.
3. Leatherback turtles have become the world's most endangered sea turtle.

4. Diet can have a major impact on the quality of sleep.
5. Changing sea levels have had a marked effect on many landscapes.
6. Effective means of controlling land use do not exist in most countries.
7. All living things must adapt to their environment.
8. Engineers do not agree with this argument.
9. The ministers will soon reach a compromise on agriculture.
10. The orchestra had often played at official receptions.



EXERCISE 7

Circle the verb group in each of the following sentences.

1. The sweet potato did not reach New Guinea until about 1600.
2. The rebels had occupied the parliament.
3. Southern Nigeria has yielded remarkable archaeological remains.
4. The management does not always acknowledge cultural diversity
5. Many athletes do not heed the warnings about the dangers of steroid use
6. Only specialised plants can survive the harsh climate of a desert.
7. A city cannot operate without a government of some kind.
8. Many adolescents have already developed poor dietary habits.
9. Proportional graphs can be an effective way to present data.
10. Researchers have rarely understood the significance of this variable.

Chapter 3: Subject-verb agreement

In this chapter, you will learn about subject-verb agreement and about how to make different types of subjects and verbs agree.

The subject and the verb in a sentence must agree in **number** and **person**. This means that a singular subject must take the singular form of the verb, and a plural subject must take the plural form of the verb. If a verb is **regular**, the need for agreement is not always obvious because the form of the verb does not vary greatly. Consider the following.

SIMPLE PRESENT

work

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I work	we work
<i>second person</i>	you work	you work
<i>third person</i>	he works she works it works	they work

Note that the form of the verb only changes in the third person singular.

SIMPLE PAST

work

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I worked	we worked
<i>second person</i>	you worked	you worked
<i>third person</i>	he worked she worked it worked	they worked

Note that the form of the verb is the same irrespective of number or person. When the verb is **irregular**, the need for subject-verb agreement is more obvious.

SIMPLE PRESENT

be

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I am	we are
<i>second person</i>	you are	you are
<i>third person</i>	he is she is it is	they are

SIMPLE PAST

be

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I was	we were
<i>second person</i>	you were	you were
<i>third person</i>	he was she was it was	they were

More about auxiliary verbs

When a sentence contains a **verb group** with a form of the **auxiliary verbs** 'be', 'have' or 'do', only the auxiliary verb changes its form, particularly when the present tense form of the auxiliary verb is used. Consider the following.

This view **is becoming** more popular. – *singular*
 These views **are becoming** more popular. – *plural*
 This view **was becoming** more popular. – *singular*
 These views **were becoming** more popular. – *plural*

The book **has sold** well. – *singular*
 The books **have sold** well. – *plural*
BUT
 The book **had sold** well. – *singular*
 The books **had sold** well. – *plural*

She **does live** in Florence. – *singular*
They **do live** in Florence. – *plural*
BUT
She **did live** in Florence. – *singular*
They **did live** in Florence. – *plural*

Modal auxiliary verbs

Modal auxiliary verbs ('can', 'could', 'may', 'might', 'must', 'ought', 'shall', 'should', 'will' and 'would') have only one form, and they cannot be used as main verbs; instead, they will always appear as the first word in a verb group.

When a sentence contains a verb group with a **modal auxiliary verb**, the verb group is the same irrespective of the number of the subject. Consider the following.

He **might find** a solution. – *singular subject*
 They **might find** a solution. – *plural subject*
 She **ought to finish** the experiment soon. – *singular subject*
 They **ought to finish** the experiment soon. – *plural subject*

Note that 'ought' must always be followed by the infinitive. The infinitive is formed by placing 'to' in front of the form of the verb that appears in a dictionary.

dictionary entry	infinitive
be	to be
have	to have
complete	to complete
forget	to forget
include	to include

MAKING SUBJECTS AND VERBS AGREE IN SENTENCES WHERE THE SUBJECT IS DIFFICULT TO FIND

Subject-verb agreement in sentences containing prepositional phrases

Remember that the subject NEVER appears in a prepositional phrase.

Subject-verb agreement in sentences beginning with 'There is', 'There was', 'There are' or 'There were'

Remember that the subject appears AFTER the verb.

Subject-verb agreement in sentences containing appositive phrases

Remember that the subject NEVER appears in an appositive phrase.

Subject verb agreement with collective nouns

In general, when the subject of a sentence is a collective noun, the name of a group of persons or things, the form of the verb required is singular because the persons or things referred to by the collective noun are operating as a unit. If you wish to indicate that the persons or things referred to by the collective noun are acting as individuals, it is best to rephrase the sentence. Consider the following. The subject is underlined, and the verb is in **bold** type.

The committee **was** meeting in the Board Room.
– *singular*

The members of the committee **were** collecting their overcoats. – *plural*

Common collective nouns

audience, army, assembly, association, board, clan, class, club, committee, council, crew, crowd, faculty, family, government, group, herd, jury, majority, minority, orchestra, panel, public, senate, staff, team, tribe

Subject-verb agreement with indefinite pronouns

Some indefinite pronouns are always singular; some are always plural, but a small group of indefinite pronouns may be singular or plural depending on the meaning of the sentence.

Singular indefinite pronouns

another, anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, neither, no one, nobody, nothing, somebody, someone, something

Plural indefinite pronouns

both, few, several, many

Singular or plural indefinite pronouns

all, any, more, most, none, some

Consider the following. The subject is underlined, and the verb is in **bold** type.

All of the book **was** relevant.
– *singular because 'book' is singular.*

All of the class **is going** to the play.
– *singular because 'class' is a collective noun.*

All of the students **are going** to the play.
– *plural because 'students' is plural.*

Subject-verb agreement in sentences with more than one subject

The verb is always plural if ‘and’ connects the two subjects. Consider the following. The subjects are underlined, and the verb is in **bold** type.

Susan and Jeff **have** three children.

– *singular subjects*

Apples and pears **grow** best in a cool temperate climate.

– *plural subjects*

High temperatures and low rainfall **cause** crop losses.

– *a plural subject and singular subject*

The only exception is if the two subjects are regarded as a single item.

Bacon and eggs **is** a traditional English breakfast dish.

The verb is always plural if there is a list of three or more subjects separated by commas with ‘and’ before the last item in the list.

Prejudice, cruelty, ignorance and poverty **trigger** much mental illness.

Where the subjects are connected using ‘or’, ‘nor’, ‘either’, ‘neither’, ‘either...or’, ‘neither...nor’, ‘not only... but also’, extra care is required.

If both subjects are singular, the verb is singular.

Coal or oil **is** the preferred fuel source.

Either the secretary or the treasurer **attends** the ceremony.

If both subjects are plural, the verb is plural.

The doctors or the nurses **are** responsible for the patient records.

Strong currents or undertows **cause** many swimming fatalities.

If one subject is plural and the other subject is singular, the verb agrees with the subject closer to it.

The students or the teacher **records** the weekly rainfall.

The teacher or the students **record** the weekly rainfall.

Either the workers or the supervisor **brings** the materials from the storeroom.

Either the supervisor or the workers **bring** the materials from the storeroom.

EXTRA



SENTENCES BEGINNING WITH 'A NUMBER' AND 'THE NUMBER'

Note the following use of singular and plural verb forms.

The number of students in each seminar **is** set at fifteen.

A number of important developments **have** occurred in the last decade.

'The number' takes the **singular** form of the verb.

'A number' takes the **plural** form of the verb.

SOME UNUSUAL NOUNS

Some nouns have unusual singular and plural forms. Many of these nouns are words that have been borrowed from other languages, particularly Greek or Latin. Errors are frequently made with the following words.

singular	plural
analysis	analyses
bacterium	bacteria
basis	bases
crisis	crises
datum	data
diagnosis	diagnoses
criterion	criteria
hypothesis	hypotheses
oasis	oases
parenthesis	parentheses
phenomenon	phenomena
thesis	theses



EXERCISE 1

Choose the correct form of the verb in each of the following sentences.

1. The number of older people in Australia (is / are) growing.
2. The rescue squad (responds / respond) to all emergencies.
3. Each of these kinds of communication (is / are) important, interesting and complex.
4. Wrinkled skin and grey hair (typifies / typify) aging.
5. Steak and chips (is / are) regarded as the classic French meal.
6. Neither the studies nor the data (is / are) of sufficient quality
7. Forty-five minutes or an hour (is / are) required for the test.
8. Better diet and better hygiene probably (accounts / account) for the falling death rates.
9. For rural women, access to paid work and the availability of childcare services (is / are) reduced.
10. A dog or a cat (makes / make) a good pet for a child.



EXERCISE 2

Choose the correct form of the verb in each of the following sentences.

1. Neither the individuals nor the group (has / have) a clearly established status.
2. In most situations, formal teaching and informal education (coexists / coexist).
3. A number of companies (provides / provide) childcare assistance to employees.
4. The distribution of doctors (tends / tend) to reflect the distribution of affluence.
5. The number of young people in the town (is / are) a product of its emerging role as a centre for education and training.
6. Neither exercise nor changes in diet (guarantees / guarantee) a long healthy life.
7. All parts of the Australian continent (receives / receive) enough sunlight for plant growth.

8. The Guide Dog Association (needs / need) more volunteers.
9. In some trials, sloppy police work or a bad lawyer (disadvantages / disadvantage) the defendant.
10. Neither the number nor the percentage of full time jobs (have / has) changed in the last five years.

EXERCISE 3

Choose the correct form of the verb in each of the following sentences.

1. The police or an ambulance (have / has) arrived at the scene of the accident.
2. The crowd (was / were) gathered on the steps of the monument.
3. Childcare centres at the workplace (is / are) not new.
4. The decline of country towns (was / were) attributed to low commodity prices.
5. Neither the children nor their mother (have / has) arrived yet.
6. Practice or natural aptitude (explains / explain) her brilliant performance.
7. The board of directors (meets / meet) every three months.
8. Lower wages or job losses (results / result) in larger numbers in need of public assistance.
9. The number of new immigrants or the birth rate (is / are) declining.
10. The instructions to the operator (does / do) not apply any longer.



EXERCISE 4

Choose the correct form of the verb in each of the following sentences.

1. The cost of the books (includes / include) airmail postage and handling charges.
2. There (was / were) six heavy cruisers in the flotilla.
3. Each of the five models (focuses / focus) on important but different aspects of intimacy.



4. Over the years, control of the instruments of mass communication (has / have) fallen into the hands of a small number of professional communicators.
5. The precise reasons for the existence of the numerous languages of the world (is / are) not clear.
6. There (has / have) been major changes in the geographical structure of the metropolitan area.
7. Census data (does / do) not measure population mobility.
8. Conditioning, learning by association, (establishes / establish) a connection between a stimulus and a response.
9. The relocation program and its effects (highlights / highlight) one of the major problems.
10. Family eating habits and peer pressure (influences / influence) children's choice of foods.

Chapter 4: Fragments and phrases

In this chapter, you will learn how to identify and correct sentence fragments. You will also learn more about different types of phrases including prepositional phrases, verb phrases, noun phrases, infinitive phrases, participial phrases and gerund phrases.

IDENTIFYING AND CORRECTING FRAGMENTS

A simple sentence must have a subject and a verb, and it must express a complete idea (see Chapter 1). A fragment is a piece of a sentence. It is not a sentence either because it lacks a subject, it lacks a verb, it lacks both a subject and a verb or because, although the subject and the verb are present, it does not express a complete idea.

1. The subject is missing.

Examines the impact of population growth.

To correct the fragment, add a subject.

The article examines the impact of population growth.

2. The verb is missing.

The causes of diseases not always obvious.

To correct the fragment, add a verb.

The causes of diseases are not always obvious.

3. Both the subject and the verb are missing.

Without the use of chemical fertilisers or pesticides.

To correct the fragment, add a subject and a verb.

Organic crops are produced without the use of chemical fertilisers or pesticides.

4. The subject and the verb are present but do not express a complete idea.

The new legislation appears.

To correct the fragment, add the word or words necessary to complete the idea.

The new legislation appears to be effective.

EXERCISE 1

Using the numbers 1 to 4, identify why the following are fragments.



1. **The subject is missing.**
2. **The verb is missing.**
3. **Both the subject and the verb are missing.**
4. **The subject and the verb are present but do not express a complete idea.**

1. Affected sales and profitability.
2. Each of these animals at risk of extinction.
3. Cannot be cared for in their homes.
4. The technician repaired.
5. The virus in all samples.
6. Between relationships.
7. The related practice euthanasia.
8. For some kind of coping mechanism.
9. Research supports.
10. To ask for explanations when in doubt.

EXERCISE 2

Using the numbers 1 to 4, identify why the following are fragments.



1. **The subject is missing.**
 2. **The verb is missing.**
 3. **Both the subject and the verb are missing.**
 4. **The subject and the verb are present but do not express a complete idea.**
-
1. Analysed expectations and possibilities.
 2. In terms of higher education.
 3. Showed awareness of the problem.
 4. To assist economic recovery and development.
 5. By racial and ethnic prejudice.
 6. The institution endorsed.
 7. Evolved soon after.
 8. After its discovery in 1900.
 9. Into the language.
 10. They seem.

CORRECTING FRAGMENTS IN PARAGRAPHS

When a fragment occurs in a longer piece of writing, it can often be corrected by joining it to the sentence preceding or following it. Sentence logic will determine which alternative is more suitable. Consider the following. In the first version, the fragments are in *italic* type. In the second version, the passage has been rewritten to eliminate the fragments.

example

with fragments

With the party in disarray. Jameson called an early election. This decision angered members from marginal seats. They were justifiably concerned. *About their chances of re-election.* In some electorates, public opinion polls favoured the opposition. *By a margin of more than thirty per cent.*

revised

With the party in disarray, Jameson called an early election. This decision angered members from marginal seats. They were justifiably concerned about their chances of re-election. In some electorates, public opinion polls favoured the opposition by a margin of more than thirty per cent.



EXERCISE 3

Identify any fragments in the following passage, and use an arrow to indicate whether the fragment belongs to the sentence that precedes it or to the sentence that follows it.

Parents can deal with the inappropriate behaviour of young children in three different ways. One possible response to inappropriate behaviour is to distract the child. By offering an alternative activity. This approach often works well. With children under the age of three. A second possible response is to simply ignore the inappropriate behaviour. For potentially dangerous behaviour.

However, this is usually not a suitable response. The third possible response is to punish the child for inappropriate behaviour. The punishment may consist of adding or removing stimuli from the child's environment. A parent may scold or slap a child. This adds stimuli to the environment in a negative and often unproductive way. Another form of punishment is to send the child out of the room or to bed. This removes stimuli from the child's environment. By depriving the child of social interaction.

Of the three methods, the first should always be the technique of choice. The other techniques. All have serious drawbacks. Ignoring the behaviour may result in injury to the child. Or to someone else. The use of punishment may actually reinforce the inappropriate behaviour. By providing attention, punishment often encourages a repetition of the inappropriate behaviour. Despite the unpleasant consequences for the child. For a young child, negative attention may be preferable to no attention. Repetition of the inappropriate behaviour may then result in the use of more severe punishment. Such as a very hard slap. At this stage, any attempt at behaviour modification will fail. An angry parent cannot teach or explain much to a crying child who is in pain. Simply removing the child from the scene of the inappropriate behaviour might work. In some circumstances. It is far better, however, to deal with the behaviour in a constructive way. The child will then gradually learn to distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate behaviour.

IDENTIFYING PHRASES

In Chapter 2, you learned about prepositional phrases. There are five more phrase types in English that you need to know: the verb phrase, the noun phrase, the infinitive phrase, the participial phrase and the gerund phrase. Remember that a phrase is **not** a sentence. A phrase is a fragment. Consider the following. In each example, the phrase is in *italic* type.

1. Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and a noun or pronoun and any modifiers of the noun or pronoun.

The museum moved *to its present location* last year.

Changes *in vegetation* may indicate climate change.

2. Verb Phrase

A verb phrase consists of a main verb, its auxiliary verbs and any other words that either appear between the auxiliary verbs and the main verb, or words that modify the verb. These will usually be adverbs.

Community groups *cannot provide* all human services.

The trade talks *would not have been* complete without an impasse over agriculture.

Recessions *do not necessarily lead* to depressions.

Note the difference between a ‘verb group’ and a **verb phrase**. Adverbs are not part of a verb group, but they are part of a **verb phrase**.

3. Noun Phrase

A noun phrase consists of a noun and its modifiers.

The remaining fragments will be destroyed.

Sensitive environments are especially vulnerable to disturbance.

4. Infinitive Phrase

An infinitive phrase consists of ‘to’ plus the form of the verb that appears as the dictionary entry (for regular verbs, this is the same as

the form of the verb that agrees with ‘I’) and any other words that complete the meaning.

His earliest ambition was *to be a plastic surgeon*.

The government is refusing *to release the latest statistics*.

Graphs should be large enough *to show all the relevant details*.

Remember that ‘to’ can also function as a preposition.

5. Participial Phrase

There are two types of participial phrase: the present participial phrase and the past participle phrase. A participial phrase *always* acts as an adjective.

A **present participial phrase** consists of the ‘ing’ form of the verb (the present participle) and any other words necessary to complete the meaning.

Keeping absolutely still, he listened for the sound of approaching footsteps.

Leaving the station, she hurried towards the city centre.

Note also that the participial phrase is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

A **past participial phrase** consists of the ‘ed’ form of the verb (the past participle) and any other words necessary to complete the meaning.

Confused by the road signs, they took the wrong route.

Prepared for anything, she entered the hall.

Note that the participial phrase is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. The participial phrase describes what comes immediately after the comma.

Note also that the past participles of irregular verbs do not always end in ‘ed’. If in doubt, check the table of irregular verbs in Chapter 8, or check the form in a dictionary. Most good dictionaries will indicate the form of the past participle.

At this stage, you only need to be able to identify a participial phrase. In particular, you need to be able to distinguish between a **present participial phrase** and a **gerund phrase**. You will encounter more information about participial phrases in Chapter 8.

6. Gerund Phrase

A gerund phrase consists of the 'ing' form of the verb and any other words necessary to complete the meaning. The gerund phrase *always* acts as a noun. It can act as the subject of a verb, or as the object of a verb.

gerund phrase as subject.

Promoting solidarity is a difficult task.

Feeling unwell worries many older people.

Writing the essay was a challenge.

gerund phrase as object.

She likes *promoting solidarity*.

He hated *feeling unwell*.

The students enjoyed *writing the essay*.

When the 'ing' form on its own is used as a noun, it is simply a **gerund**. The use of **gerunds** is quite common. Consider the following. The **gerund** is in *italic* type.

Fishing is a major industry in Port Lincoln.

Planning is the critical phase in any conservation program.



EXERCISE 4

Identify each of the phrases in *italic* type. Choose from the following:

- a. prepositional phrase
- b. verb phrase
- c. noun phrase
- d. infinitive phrase
- e. participial phrase
- f. gerund phrase.

1. *Making a decision* usually involves choosing one of several alternate solutions to a problem.
2. There is much evidence *to support this claim*.
3. *The problems of isolation and loneliness* are difficult to overcome.
4. Traditional crop plants constitute only a small fraction *of the plant world*.
5. In times of high employment and economic growth, *obtaining a job* is relatively easy.

6. *Descended from the same land ancestor as the elephant*, the dugong is a remarkable marine mammal.
7. These changes occurred *against a background of increasing internal tension*.
8. The role of public transport *has continued* to decline in most Australian cities.
9. *Conventional plastic bags* take a century to disintegrate completely.
10. *Recognising the child's musical aptitude*, she engaged a qualified piano teacher.

EXERCISE 5

Identify each of the phrases in *italic* type. Choose from the following:

- a. prepositional phrase
- b. verb phrase
- c. noun phrase
- d. infinitive phrase
- e. participial phrase
- f. gerund phrase.



1. *Economic, technological and social developments* are having a powerful impact on families.
2. Humans are responsible *for the extinction* of many bird species.
3. *Constructing or burning firebreaks of sufficient width* is not always practicable.
4. *Travelling alone or in small groups*, the bird frequents offshore tropical Indian and Pacific Ocean waters during winter.
5. A person's ability *to enter the workforce* is very dependent on educational qualifications.
6. Agriculture is concerned *with the raising of crops and animals*.
7. The suburbs can have *an increasingly important economic role*.
8. *Having poor eyesight*, echidnas depend on their acute sense of smell to locate their prey.
9. Policy changes and cuts in public spending *have caused* a serious welfare crisis.
10. *Repairing the damage* to the ecosystem will take decades.



EXERCISE 6

Identify each of the phrases in *italic* type. Choose from the following:

- a. prepositional phrase
- b. verb phrase
- c. noun phrase
- d. infinitive phrase
- e. participial phrase
- f. gerund phrase.

1. *Spending its entire life in water*, the dugong surfaces only to breathe.
2. One of the effects of acid rain is *to accelerate the rate of weathering* of some building stones.
3. *Improving the skills of the workforce* is a commonly used strategy to enhance profitability.
4. The interactions between humankind and the physical environment are *the result of attempts* to satisfy real and perceived needs and wants.
5. Mountain ranges interrupt *the movement of prevailing winds* and the movement of moisture-laden air.
6. People *often move* to take advantage of employment opportunities.
7. Many towns are able to take advantage *of strong community networks* for provision of services.
8. Settlements are small and have *to move frequently*.
9. *Moving stock on foot from one place to another* is called droving.
10. *In the early nineteenth century*, traders and investors were very interested in New Zealand flax.

EXTRA
SENTENCES THAT BEGIN WITH A PRESENT PARTICIPIAL PHRASE

The use of a present participial phrase at the beginning of a sentence can be clumsy, especially when the present participle is 'being'. Consider the following.

Being a fast reader, she completed the test in the allotted time.

Being tired, she went to bed at 7.00 pm.

It is better to rewrite the sentence and avoid the use of the present participial phrase.

example 1

clumsy

Being a fast reader, she completed the test in the allotted time.

rewritten as a compound sentence

She is a fast reader, so she completed the test in the allotted time.

rewritten as a complex sentence

Because she is a fast reader, she completed the test in the allotted time.

example 2

clumsy

Being tired, she went to bed.

rewritten as a compound sentence

She was tired, so she went to bed.

rewritten as a complex sentence

Because she was tired, she went to bed.



Chapter 5: Compound sentences

In this chapter, you will learn three different methods of joining two simple sentences (independent clauses) to form a compound sentence. You will learn about coordinating conjunctions and adverbial conjunctions, and the relationships that they indicate.

By now, you should have a good understanding of simple sentences. Remember, a simple sentence must contain a subject and a verb, and it must express a complete idea. A simple sentence can also be called an **independent clause**.

A **compound sentence** is formed when two independent clauses are joined using coordination. There are three ways of using coordination to form a compound sentence.

FIRST, AND MOST COMMON METHOD OF JOINING INDEPENDENT CLAUSES

The first, and most common, method of forming a compound sentence is by using a comma and a coordinating conjunction.

independent clause 1, *coordinating conjunction* independent clause 2

Consider the following. The comma and the coordinating conjunction are in **bold** type.

example 1

independent clause 1

Human existence depends on food and companionship.

independent clause 2

These two factors are closely inter-related.

compound sentence

Human existence depends on food and companionship, **and** these two factors are closely inter-related.

example 2

independent clause 1

The interior of a modern car is relatively quiet.

independent clause 2

The interior of a modern car is not soundproof.

compound sentence

The interior of a modern car is relatively quiet, **but** it is not soundproof.

Note that 'the interior of a modern car' has been replaced by 'it' in the second clause.

Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions, as the name suggests, are joining words. They show the relations between words or groups of words. Coordinating conjunctions join words or groups of words that have equal importance. When used to form a compound sentence, the coordinating conjunction indicates how the two independent clauses relate to each other.

and – addition

but – contrast

for – (meaning ‘because’) the second clause introduces a reason

or – alternative

nor – addition (when the first clause is negative)

so – the second clause introduces a result

yet – contrast

You can remember these with the mnemonic ‘A.B. Fonsy’ (the initial letter of each conjunction).

Note that ‘for’ (meaning because) is rarely used in Australian English, but you will encounter it in texts published in other countries that use English.

Coordinating conjunctions can also be used in pairs.

either...or

neither...nor

not only...but also

not...but

Special care must be taken with ‘nor’ and ‘neither ... nor’. Consider the following. The comma and the coordinating conjunction are in **bold** type.

independent clause 1

He cannot speak French.

independent clause 2

He cannot speak Italian.

compound sentence

He cannot speak French, **nor** can he speak Italian.

Note that the subject and the verb in the second independent clause are inverted.



EXERCISE 1

Identify the relationship of sentence (b) to sentence (a). Join sentence (b) to sentence (a) using an appropriate coordinating conjunction. Where appropriate, use pronouns, or omit words to avoid unnecessary repetition.

example 1

- a. The weather is perfect during the dry season.
- b. The weather is unbearable during the wet season.

Relationship of second sentence to first: contrast

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: but

Compound sentence: The weather is perfect during the dry season, but it is unbearable in the wet.

example 2

- a. The delegates could not reach agreement on Monday night.
- b. The delegates decided to meet again on Tuesday morning.

Relationship of second sentence to first: result

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: so

Compound sentence: The delegates could not reach agreement on Monday night, so they decided to meet again on Tuesday morning.

1. a. Ozone constitutes less than one part per million of the atmosphere.
- b. Ozone is extremely important for life on earth.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

- 2. a. Work on the Canadian Pacific Railway began in 1881.
- b. In 1885, people were able to travel by train from Vancouver to Montreal.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

- 3. a. The body contains more than 600 different muscles.
- b. Each muscle is responsible for a specific task.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

- 4. a. Some of the representatives were from established nations.
- b. Other representatives were the leaders of small groups.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

- 5. a. Preliminary trials of the new drug are encouraging.
- b. The researchers plan to begin clinical trials as soon as possible.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

6. a. The food was not good.

b. The food was not sufficient.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

7. a. Competition for jobs was acute.

b. Labour was cheap.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

8. a. The meat of the animal was good to eat.

b. The skin of the animal was useful for making clothes.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

9. a. Petroleum accounts for half of the world's energy supplies.

b. Petroleum is expected to last for little more than half a century.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

10. a. The Department of Public Works officials could approve the building.
- b. The Department of Public Works officials could reject the building.

Relationship of second sentence to first: _____

Conjunction that introduces this meaning: _____

Compound sentence: _____

SECOND METHOD OF JOINING INDEPENDENT CLAUSES

The second recommended method for forming a compound sentence is by using a semicolon, an adverbial conjunction and a comma.

independent clause 1; adverbial conjunction, independent clause 2

Consider the following. The semicolon, the adverbial conjunction and the comma are in **bold** type.

example 1

independent clause 1

Retailing and wholesaling were traditionally labour intensive.

independent clause 2

Technological change has dramatically reduced labour requirements.

compound sentence

Retailing and wholesaling were traditionally labour intensive; **however**, technological change has dramatically reduced labour requirements.

example 2

independent clause 1

There is probably no food that cannot cause allergy.

independent clause 2

Certain foods are much more likely to give trouble.

compound sentence

There is probably no food that cannot cause allergy; **nonetheless**, certain foods are much more likely to give trouble.

Frequently used adverbial conjunctions

addition - in addition, also, besides, furthermore, moreover

contrast - however, on the contrary, nevertheless, nonetheless

alternative - instead, on the other hand, otherwise

result - accordingly, as a result, consequently, hence, therefore, thus

likeness - likewise, similarly

emphasis - in effect, in fact, indeed

clarification - that is

to give an example - for example, for instance

to show time - at the same time, finally, in the meantime, meanwhile, next, then, thereafter

Although they indicate similar relationships, adverbial conjunctions can often lend a more formal tone to compound sentences than coordinating conjunctions.



EXERCISE 2

Join sentence (b) to sentence (a) using an **adverbial conjunction**. Where appropriate, use pronouns, or omit words to avoid unnecessary repetition. Remember to use a semicolon **before** and a comma **after** the adverbial conjunction, and make sure that the adverbial conjunction you choose makes sense. The relationship between the sentences is shown in parentheses.

1. a. After birth, a young primate takes a long time to develop.
b. A young primate depends on parental guidance during much of its immature life. (*add an idea*)

2. a. She read the literature on the subject.
b. She began to assess the information. (*show time*)

3. a. Brainstorming can be done individually.
b. Brainstorming seems to work best with about five to seven participants. (*show contrast*)

4. a. Meat is frequently responsible for outbreaks of food poisoning.
b. Animal fattening drugs may be harmful to humans. (*add an idea*)

5. a. The cost of housing has increased dramatically in the last five years.
b. Many people are now spending more than 40 per cent of their monthly income on housing. (*show result*)

- 6. a. The platypus is crepuscular.
- b. The platypus is most active in the early morning and the late evening. (*provide clarification*)

- 7. a. An earthquake may raise a portion of the former sea floor well above water level.
- b. A portion of the land may just as suddenly disappear under the sea. (*provide an alternative*)

- 8. a. Infant rhesus monkeys were removed from their mothers.
- b. The effects of this maternal deprivation were still evident a year later. (*add an idea*)

- 9. a. Protein deficiency may not kill directly.
- b. Protein deficiency leaves its victims vulnerable to other diseases. (*show contrast*)

- 10. a. Many people in the world do not get enough food.
- b. Many people in the world do not have the energy to work. (*show result*)

EXERCISE 3

Join sentence (b) to sentence (a) using an **adverbial conjunction**. Where appropriate, use pronouns, or omit words to avoid unnecessary repetition. Remember to use a semicolon **before** and a comma **after** the adverbial conjunction, and make sure that the adverbial conjunction you choose makes sense. The relationship between the sentences is shown in parentheses.



1. a. From 1871, women were allowed to sit the matriculation examination at the University of Melbourne.
 b. Many girls' schools offered matriculation subjects. (*show time*)

2. a. Participation in sport improves fitness and health.
 b. Participation in sport affords opportunities for social contact. (*add an idea*)

3. a. The local residents wished to establish a community centre.
 b. The local residents approached the local council for financial assistance. (*show result*)

4. a. Rebel groups surrendered more than 3000 weapons during the gun amnesty.
 b. Many more guns are still circulating in the community. (*show contrast*)

5. a. In 2002, Australia experienced one of its worst droughts in history.
b. The quality of the 2003 wines suffered. (*show result*)

6. a. There is always room for improvement.
b. The teaching materials could be made more attractive to students. (*give an example*)

7. a. Scientists claim advances in cancer therapy as a result of animal experiments.
b. Critics condemn animal experiments as cruel and unnecessary. (*show contrast*)

8. a. There was a severe shortage of beef.
b. The price of beef rose sharply. (*show result*)

9. a. Bites from black snakes are not likely to be fatal.
b. Bites from black snakes can make the victim very ill. (*show contrast*)

10. a. The car made suburbia possible.
 b. The suburbs made the car essential. (*add an idea*)

EXERCISE 4

Punctuate each compound sentence correctly by adding a semicolon, a comma, or both, where necessary.



1. From 1901 to 1968, there were forty-five shark attacks on divers on the Great Barrier Reef and twelve of these were fatal.
2. The Basque people live in a region of the Spanish Pyrenees however their origin is disputed.
3. The pale surfaces of pebbles result from scratches from movement against other stones so they scatter light.
4. The Chinese used coal tar for smelting long before the first century BCE yet it was not widely used in Europe until the eighteenth century.
5. Most people consume alcohol in moderation on most occasions but some do not.
6. The Latin alphabet has no 'w' or 'y' otherwise it is the same as the English alphabet.
7. Bamboo has many uses and it is a native grass on every continent except for Antarctica and Europe.
8. Restructuring not only undermines employee security but it also puts pressure on employees to work longer hours.
9. The demand for people with manual skills continues to decline moreover male workers have been the worst affected.
10. The public admired explorers for their skill and courage and Cook became one of the most famous.



EXERCISE 5

Punctuate each compound sentence correctly by adding a semicolon, a comma, or both, where necessary.

1. China had not always been closed to foreigners in fact it had enjoyed a period of lively intercourse with the West during the Han dynasty (206 BCE-220 CE) and again during the late thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.
2. Their wealth depended on prosperous and efficient farming therefore they gave a great deal of attention to the improvement of farming skills.
3. The conquests of Alexander the Great in the 4th century BCE carried Greek bronze-working to India and Greek bronzes soon reached China as articles of commerce.
4. Women artists are still under-represented in many major galleries nevertheless they are no longer entirely invisible.
5. Things seen in daylight and under artificial light are different for the rate of emission of photons differs.
6. Critics have almost ignored his novels in fact only one article about his work is available.
7. In Australia, parquet flooring was popular in the 1890s but it was always an expensive alternative to boards.
8. Charles Pearson proposed the subway system for London in 1843 and work on the first six kilometres began in 1860.
9. Children up to high school age need, on average, nine hours sleep each night however half of the children in Australia are not getting it.
10. The camp provided an opportunity to learn all aspects of filmmaking furthermore it provided young people from isolated areas with an opportunity to mix with others of similar ages.

EXTRA**USING 'HOWEVER'**

'However' is best used as an adverbial conjunction, but a number of other uses are possible.

1. It is possible to begin a sentence with 'However' followed by a comma. Sentences beginning with 'However,' should be used very sparingly. Overuse of such sentences means that the reader's attention is drawn to 'however' rather than to the content of the sentence. A sentence that begins with 'However,' is closely related to the sentence that precedes it, and it is usually more appropriate to use 'however' with the correct punctuation to form a compound sentence.

example 1

awkward

Death used to be marked by the end of respiration.
However, it is now determined by electrocardiogram
or electroencephalogram.

revised

Death used to be marked by the end of respiration;
however, it is now determined by electrocardiogram
or electroencephalogram.

2. 'However' may be used as an aside that interrupts the sentence. If 'however' is used in this way, it must be preceded and followed by a comma.

example 2

Originally, however, newspapers were essentially
local journals.

3. 'However' may be used to mean 'in whatever manner', 'by whatever way' or 'to whatever extent'. Consider the following.

The poem was unintelligible however they read it.
However they read the poem, it was unintelligible.

In these sentences, 'however' means 'in whatever manner'. With different punctuation, 'however' would mean something quite different. Consider the following.

The poem was unintelligible however they read it.

The poem was unintelligible; however, they read it.

In the second sentence, 'however' is used as an adverbial conjunction indicating contrast. Failure to punctuate 'however' correctly may result in ambiguity.

Most other adverbial conjunctions may also be used at the beginning of a sentence. They are then called **sentence adverbs**. If a sentence adverb is used to begin a sentence, it should always be followed by a comma. Such sentences should also be used sparingly because the sentence adverb will tend to draw the reader's attention more than the content of the sentence. It is usually more appropriate to join the independent clause to the preceding independent clause using the adverbial conjunction with a semicolon and a comma to form a compound sentence.

Third method of connecting independent clauses

The semicolon is sometimes used by itself, with no connecting word, to join two independent clauses. This method should only be used when the two independent clauses have a very similar structure and when the relationship between the two clauses is quite obvious.

independent clause 1; independent clause 2

Consider the following. The semicolon is in **bold** type.

example 1

independent clause 1

It was time to go home.

independent clause 2

It was 5am.

compound sentence

It was time to go home; it was 5am.

example 2

independent clause 1

He was thirsty.

independent clause 2

He needed a drink.

compound sentence

He was thirsty; he needed a drink.

example 3

independent clause 1

Some people thrive on stressful situations.

independent clause 2

Others do not.

compound sentence

Some people thrive on stressful situations; others do not.

example 4

independent clause 1

Glasgow was the second city in the world to have an underground railway system.

independent clause 2

London was the first.

compound sentence

Glasgow was the second city in the world to have an underground railway system; London was the first.

SUMMARY: FORMING COMPOUND SENTENCES

1. Independent clause, **coordinating conjunction** independent clause.
2. Independent clause; **adverbial conjunction**, independent clause.
3. Independent clause; independent clause.



Chapter 6: Complex sentences

In this chapter, you will learn about subordinating conjunctions and the relationships they indicate, and about dependent clauses. You will learn how to join an independent clause and a dependent clause to form a complex sentence. You will also learn about relative pronouns and relative clauses, and how they are used to form complex sentences.

A **complex sentence** consists of an independent clause and a dependent clause.

The **dependent clause** may be an independent clause that is preceded by a subordinating conjunction, or it may be a relative clause.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

An independent clause becomes dependent when a **subordinating conjunction** is placed at the beginning of the independent clause. Consider the following. The subordinating conjunctions are in *italic* type.

Many people began to invest in property.
– *independent clause*

Because many people began to invest in property.
– *dependent clause*

The transport system remains focused on the inner city.
– *independent clause*

Although the transport system remains focused on the inner city. – *dependent clause*

These changes are difficult to measure.

– *independent clause*

While these changes are difficult to measure.

– *dependent clause*

A dependent clause by itself is a fragment; that is, it is not a sentence.

FORMING A COMPLEX SENTENCE USING A SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION

A complex sentence is formed by subordinating one independent clause to another using a subordinating conjunction. The subordinating conjunction that is used indicates the relationship between the two clauses. Consider the following. The subordinating conjunctions are in *italic* type.

example 1

independent clause 1

The use of coal has declined.

independent clause 2

It is easier to use petroleum.

complex sentences

The use of coal has declined *because* it is easier to use petroleum. (IC DC)

Because it is easier to use petroleum, the use of coal has declined. (DC, IC)

example 2

independent clause 1

Nutrition experts distinguish between undernutrition and malnutrition.

independent clause 2

The two conditions are interrelated.

complex sentences

Nutrition experts distinguish between undernutrition and malnutrition *although the two conditions are interrelated*. (IC DC)

Although the two conditions are interrelated, nutrition experts distinguish between under-nutrition and malnutrition. (DC, IC)

A complex sentence can begin with the independent clause or with the dependent clause. If the independent clause is first, no punctuation between the clauses is required. If the dependent clause appears first, use a comma between the two clauses.

Subordinating conjunctions

condition: if, even if, as long as, provided that, unless (IC must be negative)

contrast: although, even though

cause: because, since

time: after, before, when, whenever, while, until (IC must be negative)

place: where, wherever

purpose: in order that, so that

Note that a number of the subordinating conjunctions in the list can also act as prepositions. If the word is acting as a subordinating conjunction, it must be followed by a subject and a verb.

EXERCISE 1

Identify the underlined word in each sentence as (a) subordinating conjunction or (b) preposition.

1. Planning for the future is impossible until present-day behaviour is understood.
2. The first restaurants began to appear in Paris before the Revolution of 1788.
3. The council did not approve the development until he had revised the plans.
4. After he resigned, the reputation of the orchestra suffered.
5. The committee must meet before the end of this year.
6. New Zealand became a Crown Colony one year after the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi.



7. Until the consumer revolution of the eighteenth century, fashionable dress was almost exclusively a sign of the upper classes and their power.
8. The mine has been in continuous operation since Harman first discovered gold in 1853.
9. Some of the negative effects of divorce on children do not appear until some time after the marital breakdown.
10. The tribe has lived in this mountainous area since the beginning of the twentieth century.

EXERCISE 2

Use a comma to punctuate each of the following complex sentences where appropriate. Remember that if the independent clause appears first, no comma is required. If the dependent clause appears first, use a comma immediately after it.



1. When a person receives an organ or tissue transplant the immune system may reject it as foreign.
2. Although the size of the workforce has grown there are now fewer jobs in manufacturing and agriculture.
3. The transfer of heat energy by conduction occurs when two objects are in direct contact with each other.
4. While memory may falter with age creativity is ageless.
5. They no longer had to rely on their own strength alone because they had learned how to harness the power of animals.
6. Although oil occurs worldwide most of the reserves are found in a small number of 'giant fields'.
7. A country will only have an important tourist industry if it has something to attract tourists.
8. When a change is made to a farm system all of the subsystems are affected.
9. The quality of life is getting poorer because humans are destroying too much of the natural environment.
10. As group size changes leadership roles change.

EXERCISE 3

Combine each of the following pairs of sentences using subordination. The result will be a **complex sentence**. Where appropriate, use pronouns, or omit words to avoid unnecessary repetition. Use the first sentence of each pair as the **independent clause**. Your complex sentence may follow either pattern (IC DC or DC, IC).

**example 1**

independent clauses

- a. Vulnerability and poverty are not synonymous.
- b. Vulnerability and poverty are often closely related. (*although*)

complex sentences

Vulnerability and poverty are not synonymous although they are often closely related.

Although vulnerability and poverty are often closely related, they are not synonymous.

example 2

independent clauses

- a. People are drawn to urban areas in search of jobs and a better way of life.
- b. Cities are the main centres for new jobs, education, culture and trade. (*because*)

complex sentences

People are drawn to urban areas in search of jobs and a better life because cities are the main centres for new jobs, education, culture and trade.

Because cities are the main centres for new jobs, education, culture and trade, people are drawn to urban areas in search of jobs and a better life.

1. a. Many arid and semi-arid soils are saline.
b. Many arid and semi-arid soils receive insufficient precipitation to leach soluble materials. (*because*)

2. a. Thousands of lives could be saved each year.
b. Scientists could predict earthquakes accurately. (*if*)

3. a. The origins of human speech remain obscure.
b. There is no shortage of speculation on the issue. (*although*)

4. a. Learning occurs.
b. Behaviour changes as a result of experience. (*when*)

5. a. Friendship is not free from tensions.
b. Friendship is defined in terms of positive qualities. (*even though*)

6. a. Some parts of the world have virtually no rain at all.
b. Some parts of the world have as much as eleven metres in one year. (*while*)

7. a. Light waves cannot go around corners.
b. Sound waves can go around corners. (*although*)

8. a. Epidemics cannot occur.
b. A large proportion of the population is susceptible to infection. (*unless*)

- 9. a. Identifying the nature of a conflict is critical.
- b. There are two distinctly different methods for resolving conflicts. (*as*)

- 10. a. People use win-lose and lose-lose methods to resolve conflicts.
- b. People do not know any other way to resolve conflicts. (*because*)



EXTRA

USING 'BECAUSE' TO BEGIN A SENTENCE

Many people think that it is wrong to begin a sentence with 'Because'. This is not the case. There is nothing wrong with beginning a sentence with 'Because' as long as the dependent clause is followed by a comma and an independent clause that has a logical connection to the dependent clause. Consider the following.

Because the Senate refused to pass the bill, the Prime Minister called an early election.

Because it had not rained for more than six months, water restrictions were introduced.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

There are five **relative pronouns**: **who**, **whose**, **whom**, **which** and **that**.

Who, **whose** and **whom** refer to people.

Which and **that** refer to things (including animals or organisations).

Sometimes, the pronoun ‘that’ can be applied to people, but you should be cautious about indicating individuals by ‘that’.

FORMING A COMPLEX SENTENCE USING A RELATIVE PRONOUN

Relative pronouns can also be used for subordination; however, the relative pronoun and its clause must appear immediately after the word it refers to. This means that a relative clause is often, but not always, embedded in the independent clause. Consider the following. The relative clauses are in *italic* type.

A nightlight is often used to comfort a child *who is afraid of the dark*.

Any disease *that affects the health and vitality of an animal* may reduce its reproductive capacity.

In theory, when two independent clauses are combined using a relative clause, either simple sentence could become the subordinate clause, but in practice, the choice will depend on what the sentence is intended to convey and logic. In each case, the information in the independent clause is regarded as the most important. Consider the following. The relative clauses are in *italic* type.

example 1

independent clauses

Everyone depends on goods.

Goods are made in factories.

complex sentences

1. Everyone depends on goods *that are made in factories*.
2. Goods that everyone depends on are made in factories.

In the first complex sentence, the emphasis is on ‘Everyone depends on goods’. In the second complex sentence, the emphasis is on ‘Goods are made in factories’.

example 2

independent clauses

The theory of plate tectonics has several practical applications.

Geologists generally accept the theory of plate tectonics.

complex sentences

1. The theory of plate tectonics, *which geologists generally accept*, has several practical applications.
2. Geologists generally accept the theory of plate tectonics, *which has several practical applications*.

In the first complex sentence, the emphasis is on ‘The theory of plate tectonics has several practical applications’. In the second complex sentence, the emphasis is on ‘Geologists generally accept the theory of plate tectonics’.

You might have noticed that while the first pair of complex sentences does not contain commas, in the second pair, the relative clauses are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. This is because there are two types of relative clauses: **restrictive relative clauses** and **non-restrictive relative clauses**.

RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

A relative clause is **restrictive** if the information it conveys is essential to the meaning of the sentence. **Restrictive relative clauses** *do not* require commas.

A relative clause is **non-restrictive** if the information it conveys is not essential to the meaning of the sentence. **Non-restrictive relative clauses** *do* require commas. Consider the following examples.

restrictive clause

Anger is the most common feeling *that people have during a conflict*.

The clause ‘*that people have during a conflict*’ restricts the meaning of the sentence. If ‘that people have during a conflict’ were removed, the sentence would read ‘Anger is the most common feeling’. This is not the major claim of the sentence; therefore, the relative clause is essential to the meaning of the sentence, and no comma is required. You should also note the use of the pronoun ‘that’ in such a restrictive clause.

non-restrictive clause

Anger, *which is usually an unproductive emotion*, is the most common feeling during a conflict.

The speaker is making one major claim: ‘Anger is the most common feeling during a conflict’. The other information is useful, but it is **not essential** to the idea. If the statement ‘which is usually an unproductive emotion’ were removed, the major claim would still be clear.

Commas are used to set off the **non-essential information**, and the pronoun ‘which’ is used to further indicate that the information is not essential to the communication of the main idea.

restrictive clause

Li Teng is a colleague *who runs every afternoon*.

In this example, the writer wants to say something about Li Teng beyond the fact that he is a colleague. If the relative clause were omitted, the sentence would not provide the essential meaning. So, because the relative clause is essential, it is not set off by a comma.

non-restrictive clause

Li Teng, *who runs every afternoon*, is training for the Olympics.

Here, the writer essentially wants to convey the reason why Li Teng runs every afternoon. The non-essential element (the fact that he runs) is subsequently set off by commas.

CHOOSING THE CORRECT RELATIVE PRONOUN

1. Use **who**, **whose** or **whom** for people. (For more information about the use of ‘who’, ‘whose’ and ‘whom’, see Chapter 9.)
2. Use **that** for things (including animals and organisations) when the relative clause is **restrictive**. A restrictive clause should not be set off by commas.
3. Use **which** for things (including animals and organisations) when the relative clause is **non-restrictive**. A non-restrictive clause should be set off by commas.

TESTING FOR ESSENTIAL AND NON-ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS

1. Identify the element that commences with a relative pronoun.
2. Remove the element. Is the fundamental meaning of the sentence altered?
3. If the fundamental meaning of the sentence is not altered, it is non-essential and should be set off by commas.

example

José Saramago’s novel which is set in eighteenth-century Portugal is a powerful love story.

Step 1 (identifying the element)

The element that commences with a relative pronoun is ‘which is set in eighteenth-century Portugal’.

Step 2 (Removing the element from the sentence)

If the element is removed, the fundamental meaning of the sentence is not changed. (The fundamental meaning of the sentence is ‘José Saramago’s novel is a powerful love story.’)

Step 3 (Punctuating the element)

The element ‘which is set in eighteenth-century Portugal’ is therefore not essential, and it is appropriate to set it off by commas.

Correctly punctuated sentence

José Saramago’s novel, which is set in eighteenth-century Portugal, is a powerful love story.

EXERCISE 4

Punctuate the following sentences with commas where appropriate. If the relative clause is restrictive, no commas are required. If the relative clause is non-restrictive, it is appropriate to set it off by commas.



1. Goods that are for sale must be displayed to attract attention.
2. Those who seek to please everyone please nobody.
3. Eucalyptus oil which many people use to remove grease spots is also employed as an antiseptic.
4. Experiments with animals that were reared in isolation have confirmed the existence of innate patterns of social behaviour.
5. Children who receive an hour's less sleep than usual perform significantly worse on reaction time and memory tests the following day.
6. Any test of ability that is constructed in one cultural setting will elicit relatively poor performances in another culture.
7. Mt Morgan which is 38 kilometres west of Rockhampton is one of the most interesting and unusual mining towns in Queensland.
8. A public speaker who is very nervous may still manage to smile and sound relaxed.
9. The first Australian anti-discrimination legislation which was directed at racial discrimination was passed in 1966 by the South Australian government.
10. Humidity levels that are too high reduce the amount of heat lost from an animal by evaporation.

EXERCISE 5

Punctuate the following sentences with commas where appropriate. If the relative clause is restrictive, no commas are required. If the relative clause is non-restrictive, it is appropriate to set it off by commas.



1. Expanding commercial opportunities brought increased wealth to the bourgeois elite who dominated urban society.
2. The Europeans did not use stirrups which originated in China until the early part of the eighth century.
3. People who are rich can usually move freely from one country to another.

4. The Cold War which dominated twenty-five years of world history ended with the collapse of the Soviet Union.
5. Some people who have a compelling drive to succeed are striving for personal achievement rather than the material rewards of success.
6. Cooktown owes its existence to the Palmer River gold rush in the 1870s which brought more than 30 000 people to the town.
7. Individuals who generate noise that exceeds the legal limits are subject to a fine.
8. A home is the most important asset that most people will acquire in a lifetime.
9. Diophantus who lived between 100 and 400 CE is sometimes called the father of algebra.
10. The company that had the best service record won the award.



EXERCISE 6

Combine each pair of sentences using a relative clause with ‘who’, ‘which’ or ‘that’. If the relative clause is restrictive, no commas are required. If the relative clause is non-restrictive, it is appropriate to set it off by commas.

1. a. By 1803, Sydney had a regular produce market.
b. The produce market was held on Saturdays.

2. a. In Andamooka, the permanent residents live underground to escape the heat.
b. Andamooka is 600 kilometres NNW of Adelaide.

- 3. a. The model of the system must be clearly labelled.
- b. The model of the system is being studied.

- 4. a. Owners should consider the consequences.
- b. Owners let their dogs roam free.

- 5. a. Jules Archibald (1856-1919) was the founder of the *Bulletin* magazine.
- b. Jules Archibald (1856-1919) was born John Feltham Archibald.

- 6. a. Herbivores are animals.
- b. Herbivores eat plants to obtain their energy requirements.

- 7. a. Albany was the first British settlement in Western Australia.
- b. Albany was established in 1826.

- 8. a. Laws are necessary.
- b. Laws make it illegal to discriminate against any individual.

- 9. a. The world's largest earthworm grows up to 3.7 metres long.
- b. The world's largest earthworm is found in the Gippsland region of Victoria.

- 10. a. Vegemite is a rich source of B group vitamins.
- b. Fred Walker invented Vegemite in 1923.

Chapter 7: Fragments and run-ons

In this chapter, you will learn more about sentence fragments and how to correct them. You will also learn how to identify and correct different types of run-on sentences.

MORE ABOUT FRAGMENTS

In Chapter 4, you learned about fragments in simple sentences. These were quite easy to identify because they were short, usually consisting of only a few words, but there are other types of fragments. Consider the following.

example 1

fragment

But other interpretations are possible.

This is a fragment because it is an independent clause that is preceded by a coordinating conjunction. To correct the fragment, add an independent clause and a comma before the coordinating conjunction.

corrected version

Cullen's view is plausible, but other interpretations are possible.

example 2

fragment

In fact in earlier times, it could also mean ‘foolish’, ‘fussy’, ‘well dressed’ or ‘careful’.

This is a fragment because it is an independent clause that is preceded by an adverbial conjunction. To correct the fragment, add an independent clause, a semicolon before and a comma after the adverbial conjunction.

corrected version

The word ‘nice’ did not always mean ‘pleasant’ or ‘attractive’; in fact, in earlier times, it could also mean ‘foolish’, ‘fussy’, ‘well dressed’ or ‘careful’.

example 3

fragment

Because the chickens have trouble controlling their body temperature.

This is a fragment because it is a dependent clause. To correct the fragment, add an independent clause.

corrected versions

Cold temperatures are an important factor in the survival of newly hatched chickens because the chickens have trouble controlling their body temperature.

Because newly hatched chickens have trouble controlling their body temperature, cold temperatures are an important factor in the survival of the chickens.

When correcting fragments in extended writing, check whether the fragment belongs to what precedes it or to what follows it.



EXERCISE 1

Identify the following as (a) fragment or (b) complete.

1. Although it has been a feature of the industrialised world since the 1970s.
2. In the West, it is conventional to treat 1945 as the beginning of the contemporary era.

3. Because this range of variation reflects the complex interplay of a large number of environmental factors.
4. In day-to-day transactions with people, most persons, most of the time, make reasonably accurate judgments of others.
5. Some people require overwhelming evidence before they will change their views.
6. Although the larger species eat wild fruit, and some species will eat meat.
7. Because of the search for genes that are linked to behaviour.
8. The main change in the service industry throughout the developing world has been in the growth of tourism.
9. Because they placed too much of the burden for waste disposal on individual householders.
10. With the discovery of gold in New South Wales in 1851, prospectors began fossicking around the Carcoar area.

Run-ons

A run-on occurs when independent clauses are not joined correctly.

The most common forms of run-on are the **'and' run-on**, the **'fused' run-on** and the **'comma splice' run-on**.

1. **The 'and' run-on occurs when two or more independent clauses are joined with a coordinating conjunction but no punctuation.**

'and' run-on

Local governments remain the smallest and poorest tier of government in Australia and their circumstances are worsening.

revised with a comma

Local governments remain the smallest and poorest tier of government in Australia, and their circumstances are worsening.

2. The 'fused' run-on occurs when two or more independent clauses are joined without coordination or punctuation.

'fused' run-on

Many small country towns struggle to attract and retain a local doctor even the poorer regions within metropolitan areas have fewer doctors.

revised with a comma and a coordinating conjunction that indicates the relationship between the two clauses

Many small country towns struggle to attract and retain a local doctor, but even the poorer regions within metropolitan areas have fewer doctors.

3. The 'comma splice' run-on occurs when two or more independent clauses are joined with only a comma.

example 1

'comma splice' run-on

The painter Thea Proctor was born in Armidale in 1879, she died in Sydney in 1966.

revised with a full stop

The painter Thea Proctor was born in Armidale in 1879. She died in Sydney in 1966.

revised with a semicolon

The painter Thea Proctor was born in Armidale in 1879; she died in Sydney in 1966.

revised with a comma and a coordinating conjunction that indicates the relationship between the two clauses

The painter Thea Proctor was born in Armidale in 1879, and she died in Sydney in 1966.

example 2

'comma splice' run-on

Parents influence their children in many ways, there are limits to that influence.

revised with a semicolon, an adverbial conjunction that indicates the relationship between the two clauses and a comma

Parents influence their children in many ways; however, there are limits to that influence.

revised by using a subordinating conjunction that indicates the relationship between the two clauses.

Although parents influence their children in many ways, there are limits to that influence.

EXERCISE 2

Identify the run-ons as (a) 'and' run-on, (b) 'fused' run-on or (c) 'comma splice' run-on.

1. The meeting had ended the hall was empty.
2. The history section of the library was difficult to locate, the reorganisation of shelving was in progress.
3. There was an abundance of resource materials the problem was to discover the most appropriate references.
4. Genre can be defined in many ways in art it refers to scenes of everyday life.
5. The entire class had read *The Scarlet Letter* and they were looking forward to seeing the film.
6. Iconoclasm was originally a theological controversy it also caused social upheaval in the Byzantine Empire.
7. Alienation refers to transfer of ownership, it can also refer to insanity or cultural and social estrangement.
8. John Boyle O'Reilly was a political prisoner in England before his transportation to Western Australia he escaped to America in 1869.



9. The workshop was cancelled, only one person had expressed interest in attending.
10. Claude found marine biology easy, English grammar was more demanding.



EXERCISE 3

Identify the run-ons as (a) 'and' run-on, (b) 'fused' run-on or (c) 'comma splice' run-on.

1. He was intelligent and talented but he had a very quick temper.
2. Sound is a sign of activity and liveliness, the familiar clamour of everyday life can be reassuring and stimulating.
3. Death is an event of great magnitude in human experience every culture on earth ritualises it to some degree.
4. Vegetables are in demand at all times of the year so there must be a steady supply.
5. Energy is at the core of living it does not come free.
6. Individuals in optimal families have high levels of autonomy and differences between family members are accepted and even valued.
7. The story was leaked to the press in early July, the ensuing scandal destroyed his reputation.
8. The country is prosperous and industrialised but it relies heavily on primary production.
9. Eucalypt bark is thick its most remarkable feature is its great insulating quality.
10. He returned to Melbourne a hero, his glory was short-lived.



EXERCISE 4

Identify the run-ons as (a) 'and' run-on, (b) 'fused' run-on or (c) 'comma splice' run-on.

1. Most children see their bicycle as a toy, they should be encouraged to see it as a means of transport.

2. Australians should reduce their use of plastic shopping bags they should use cloth bags.
3. Separation anxiety occurs as part of normal human development and it is most obvious between the ages of one and three years.
4. The chief domestic value of the horse, camel, ass and mule was for transport and other labour tasks their meat was probably used on some occasions.
5. Most of our socialisation involves formal education but a large part of it also occurs in non-formal settings.
6. Advertising costs are high and competition is intense.
7. All motion follows mechanical principles, the motion of the human body is no exception.
8. The light from the sun seems colourless yet it contains all the colours of the rainbow.
9. Half of the forest cover has been lost in the past century, the remainder is dwindling fast.
10. Fruits and vegetables are in season only during certain times of the year their quality varies from crop to crop.

EXTRA

SENTENCES WITH MORE THAN TWO CLAUSES

A sentence may contain more than two clauses. Consider the following.

example 1

As the population grows, more resources are used, and more waste is produced.

As the population grows – *dependent clause*
more resources are used – *independent clause*
more waste is produced – *independent clause*



example 2

Because insects are so small, they are able to survive when food is scarce.

Because insects are so small – *dependent clause*
they are able to survive – *independent clause*
when food is scarce – *dependent clause*

example 3

When Labor took office in Australia in 1983, it initiated a reform programme that removed many government controls over key sections of the economy.

When Labor took office in Australia in 1983
– *dependent clause*
it initiated a reform programme
– *independent clause*
that removed many government controls over key
sections of the economy
– *dependent (relative) clause*

example 4

Giles Foreman, who has recently returned from studies in New Zealand, plans to establish a gallery, and he is currently seeking council approval for the project.

Giles Foreman plans to establish a gallery
– *independent clause*
who has recently returned from studies in New
Zealand – *dependent (relative) clause*
he is currently seeking council approval for the
project. – *independent clause*

If you do use three or more clauses, make sure that you do not lose track of what you are doing.

Chapter 8: More about verbs

In this chapter, you will learn more about verbs. You will learn about the different parts of the verb. You will also learn about the formation and use of the verb tenses, the formation and use of voice (active and passive), and about mood (indicative, imperative and subjunctive).

THE STEM OF THE VERB

All forms of the verb are derived from the **stem**. This is the form of the verb used for a dictionary entry. Consider the following.

1. laugh, kick, remain, develop, look, disappear, enter, provide, discuss, attack
2. go, keep, break, sing, know, understand, ring, think, write, forget

THE INFINITIVE FORM OF THE VERB

To form the **infinitive** of the verb, place 'to' in front of the stem.

1. to laugh, to kick, to remain, to develop, to look, to disappear, to enter, to provide, to discuss, to attack
2. to go, to keep, to break, to sing, to know, to understand, to ring, to think, to write, to forget

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS

It is also necessary to distinguish between regular verbs (such as those in group 1) and irregular verbs (such as those in group 2) because this affects the formation of tenses.

THE FORMATION OF TENSES

Simple Tenses

Simple present tense

To form the **simple present tense** of a regular verb, the stem of the verb is used, and 's' is added when the subject is, or could be replaced by, 'he', 'she' or 'it' (third person singular). Consider the following.

kick

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I kick	we kick
<i>second person</i>	you kick	you kick
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it kicks	they kick

Note that the verb form is different only in the third person singular.

In the **simple present tense** of some irregular verbs, the form of the verb may undergo more changes. Consider the following.

be

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I am	we are
<i>second person</i>	you are	you are
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it is	they are

have

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have	we have
<i>second person</i>	you have	you have
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has	they have

Not all irregular verbs reveal their irregularity in the **simple present tense**. Consider the following.

keep

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I keep	we keep
<i>second person</i>	you keep	you keep
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it keeps	they keep

write

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I write	we write
<i>second person</i>	you write	you write
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it writes	they write

Simple past tense

To form the **simple past tense** of a regular verb, the stem of the verb is used, and 'ed' is added. Consider the following.

kick

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I kicked	we kicked
<i>second person</i>	you kicked	you kicked
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it kicked	they kicked

Note that for regular verbs, the form remains the same irrespective of the number or person of the subject.

The **simple past tense** of very few irregular verbs is formed in this way, so that if the verb did not reveal its irregularity in the simple present, it will usually do so in the simple past. Consider the following, and note that the simple past is not formed by adding 'ed' to the stem.

be

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I was	we were
<i>second person</i>	you were	you were
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it was	they were

have

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I had	we had
<i>second person</i>	you had	you had
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it had	they had

keep

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I kept	we kept
<i>second person</i>	you kept	you kept
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it kept	they kept

write

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I wrote	we wrote
<i>second person</i>	you wrote	you wrote
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it wrote	they wrote

think

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I thought	we thought
<i>second person</i>	you thought	you thought
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it thought	they thought

Simple future tense

To form the **simple future tense** of regular and irregular verbs, simply place 'will' in front of the stem. This applies irrespective of the person and number of the subject. Here, 'they' is used to demonstrate the form.

kick	they will kick
be	they will be
have	they will have
keep	they will keep
write	they will write
think	they will think

Continuous forms

The **continuous forms** indicate that the action of the verb is not completed; that is, it is still in progress.

Present continuous

The **present continuous** is formed by placing the present tense form of 'be' in front of the 'ing' form of the verb. This is formed by adding 'ing' to the stem. This 'ing' form is called the **present participle**. In some cases, the final letter of the stem must be doubled (travel – travelling, control – controlling). In other cases, the final 'e' of the stem is dropped (come – coming, take – taking). Both regular and irregular verbs form the present progressive in this way.

kick

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I am kicking	we are kicking
<i>second person</i>	you are kicking	you are kicking
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it is kicking	they are kicking

be

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I am being	we are being
<i>second person</i>	you are being	you are being
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it is being	they are being

have

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I am having	we are having
<i>second person</i>	you are having	you are having
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it is having	they are having

keep

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I am keeping	we are keeping
<i>second person</i>	you are keeping	you are keeping
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it is keeping	they are keeping

write

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I am writing	we are writing
<i>second person</i>	you are writing	you are writing
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it is writing	they are writing

travel

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I am travelling	we are travelling
<i>second person</i>	you are travelling	you are travelling
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it is travelling	they are travelling

Past continuous

The **past continuous** is formed by placing the past tense form of 'be' in front of the 'ing' form (present participle) of the verb. In some cases, the final letter of the stem must be doubled (travel – travelling, control – controlling). In other cases, the final 'e' of the stem is dropped (come – coming, take – taking). Both regular and irregular verbs form the past progressive in this way.

kick

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I was kicking	we were kicking
<i>second person</i>	you were kicking	you were kicking
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it was kicking	they were kicking

be

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I was being	we were being
<i>second person</i>	you were being	you were being
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it was being	they were being

have

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I was having	we were having
<i>second person</i>	you were having	you were having
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it was having	they were having

keep

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I was keeping	we were keeping
<i>second person</i>	you were keeping	you were keeping
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it was keeping	they were keeping

write

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I was writing	we were writing
<i>second person</i>	you were writing	you were writing
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it was writing	they were writing

travel

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I was travelling	we were travelling
<i>second person</i>	you were travelling	you were travelling
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it was travelling	they were travelling

Future continuous

The **future continuous** is formed by placing 'will be' in front of the 'ing' form (present participle) of the verb. This applies irrespective of the person and the number of the subject. In some cases, the final letter of the stem must be doubled (travel – travelling, control – controlling). In other cases, the final 'e' of the stem is dropped (come – coming, take – taking). Both regular and irregular verbs form the present progressive by adding 'ing'. Here, 'they' is used to demonstrate the form.

kick	they will be kicking
be	they will be being
have	they will be having
keep	they will be keeping
write	they will be writing
travel	they will be travelling

Perfect Tenses

Present perfect tense

The **present perfect tense** of a regular verb is formed by placing the present tense form of 'have' in front of the 'ed' form of the verb. This is formed by adding 'ed' to the stem. This 'ed' form is called the **past participle**. In some cases, the final letter of the stem must be doubled (travel – travelled, control – controlled), or a 'y' must be changed to 'i' (study – studied, satisfy – satisfied). In other cases, the past participle is irregular (come – come, take – taken).

kick

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have kicked	we have kicked
<i>second person</i>	you have kicked	you have kicked
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has kicked	they have kicked

be

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have been	we have been
<i>second person</i>	you have been	you have been
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has been	they have been

have

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have had	we have had
<i>second person</i>	you have had	you have had
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has had	they have had

keep

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have kept	we have kept
<i>second person</i>	you have kept	you have kept
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has kept	they have kept

write

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have written	we have written
<i>second person</i>	you have written	you have written
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has written	they have written

think

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have thought	we have thought
<i>second person</i>	you have thought	you have thought
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has thought	they have thought

Past perfect tense

The **past perfect tense** of a regular verb is formed by placing 'had', the past tense form of 'have', in front of the 'ed' form (past participle) of the verb. In some cases, the final letter of the stem must be doubled (travel – travelled, control – controlled), or a 'y' may change to an 'i' (study – studied, satisfy – satisfied). In other cases, the past participle is irregular (come – come, take – taken). The form remains the same, irrespective of the person and number of the subject. Here, 'they' is used to demonstrate the form.

kick	they had kicked
be	they had been
have	they had had
keep	they had kept
write	they had written
think	they had thought

Future perfect tense

The **future perfect tense** of a regular verb, is formed by placing 'will have' in front of the 'ed' form (past participle) of the verb. This is formed by adding 'ed' to the stem. In some cases, the final letter of the stem must be doubled (travel – travelled, control – controlled), or a 'y' may change to an 'i' (study – studied, satisfy – satisfied). In other cases, the past participle is irregular (come – come, take – taken). The verb form is the same, irrespective of the number and person of the subject. Here, 'they' is used to demonstrate the form.

kick	they will have kicked
be	they will have been
have	they will have had
keep	they will have kept
write	they will have written
think	they will have thought

Continuous Forms of the Present Perfect, Past Perfect and Future Perfect Tenses

Present perfect continuous

The **present perfect continuous** is formed by placing the present tense form of 'have' and 'been' in front of the **present participle** (the 'ing' form of the verb).

kick

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have been kicking	we have been kicking
<i>second person</i>	you have been kicking	you have been kicking
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has been kicking	they have been kicking

have

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have been having	we have been having
<i>second person</i>	you have been having	you have been having
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has been having	they have been having

keep

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have been keeping	we have been keeping
<i>second person</i>	you have been keeping	you have been keeping
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has been keeping	they have been keeping

write

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have been writing	we have been writing
<i>second person</i>	you have been writing	you have been writing
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has been writing	they have been writing

travel

	singular	plural
<i>first person</i>	I have been travelling	we have been travelling
<i>second person</i>	you have been travelling	you have been travelling
<i>third person</i>	he, she, it has been travelling	they have been travelling

Past perfect continuous

The **past perfect continuous** is formed by placing 'had been' in front of the **present participle** (the 'ing' form of the verb). The verb form is the same, irrespective of the number and person of the subject. Here, 'they' is used to demonstrate the form.

kick	they had been kicking
have	they had been having
keep	they had been keeping
write	they had been writing
travel	they had been travelling

Future perfect continuous

The **future perfect continuous** is formed by placing 'will have been' in front of the present participle (the 'ing' form of the verb). The verb form is the same, irrespective of the number and person of the subject. Here, 'they' is used to demonstrate the form.

kick	they will have been kicking
have	they will have been having
keep	they will have been keeping
write	they will have been writing
travel	they will have been travelling



EXERCISE 1

Underline the verb or verb phrase in each sentence, and identify its form.

1. Evans had managed the team for ten years.

2. Next week, Robert will be studying for his Japanese exam.

3. Sara had been having nightmares.

4. No one will agree with him.

5. They have decided to buy a new car.

6. In 1989, she was living in Darwin.

7. Martin will have completed the essay by tomorrow.

8. They were planning a trip to New Zealand.

9. Their ideas are promising.

10. The children are playing cricket.

EXERCISE 2

Underline the verb or verb phrase in each sentence, and identify its form.



1. Globalisation and technology are forcing governments to rely more heavily on markets.

2. A degree of fashionable dress existed in New South Wales as early as the 1790s.

3. The greatest natural disasters of all time have been epidemics of infectious diseases.

4. Controlling fires will be beyond the capacity of the force.

5. The importance of service jobs has changed dramatically in the last century.

6. Establishing the new school had been an expensive undertaking.

7. Assessing the effect of the changes will have been a challenge for researchers.

8. Conservationists have been studying the breeding habits of the turtles.

9. The students will be presenting their papers next week..

10. In the Renaissance, learning was an admired accomplishment.

SOME UNUSUAL VERBS

Some verbs have two forms for the simple past and the past participle.

stem	simple past	past participle
burn	burned / burnt	burned / burnt
dream	dreamed / dreamt	dreamed / dreamt
dwell	dwelled / dwelt	dwelled / dwelt
kneel	kneeled / knelt	kneeled / knelt
lean	leaned / leant	leaned / leant
leap	leaped / leapt	leaped / leapt
light	lighted / lit	lighted / lit
smell	smelled / smelt	smelled / smelt
speed	speeded / sped	speeded / sped
spell	spelled / spelt	spelled / spelt
spill	spilled / spilt	spilled / spilt
spoil	spoiled / spoilt	spoiled / spoilt

SOME COMMON IRREGULAR VERBS

stem	simple past	past participle
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoken
be	was/were	been
bear	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten
become	become	became
begin	began	begun
bend	bend	bent
bet	bet	bet
bid (<i>offer</i>)	bid	bid
bid (<i>command</i>)	bade	bidden
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed

stem	simple past	past participle
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got (not 'gotten')
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang (<i>suspend</i>)	hung	hung
hang (<i>execute</i>)	hanged	hanged
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie (<i>recline</i>)	lay	lain
lie (<i>speak falsely</i>)	lied	lied
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit

stem	simple past	past participle
read	read	read
ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	sawn
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
sow	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
spend	spent	spent
spin	spun	spun
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven

stem	simple past	past participle
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden
understand	understood	understood
wear	wore	worn
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
write	wrote	written

Using Tenses

The use of tenses can be a complicated issue. This section provides a short summary of the use of tenses and examples of each usage. For more information, you should consult a comprehensive book of grammar.

Simple forms

The **simple present tense** is used for instantaneous actions, universal statements or repeated occurrences.

The keeper **catches** the ball. – *instantaneous action*

Wombats **are** marsupials. – *universal statement*

She **publishes** a book every year. – *repeated occurrence*

The **simple present tense** is frequently used when referring to literary works or films. It is used to describe the author's work and the action in the work.

When Rollo Martins **arrives** in Vienna, he **discovers** that Harry Lime **is** dead.

Miss Havisham **encourages** Estella to treat Pip badly.

The **simple past tense** is used to indicate that an action has been completed in the past.

The English **defeated** the Spanish Armada in 1588.

The Berlin Wall **fell** in November 1989.

The **simple future tense** is used especially when forecasting or suggesting results.

The bank **will make** a decision about interest rates at the next board meeting.

Their decision **will affect** all credit card holders.

Continuous forms

Continuous forms are used to indicate that an activity or state has a certain duration that may be continuing.

The **present continuous** indicates that a present action or state is continuing.

The telescope **is providing** pictures of extremely high quality.

Palaeontologists **are coming** to similar conclusions about the fossilised remains.

The **past continuous** is frequently used to contrast the duration of events or states.

They **began** the last ascent as the sun **was setting**.

Dawson **attended** many meetings when he **was living** in Sydney.

Note that the contrast is made possible by the use of the simple past and the past continuous in the same sentence.

The **future continuous** indicates a future continuing action or state.

References to Aztecs **will be disappearing** from the textbooks.

The police **will be investigating** this case for a long time.

Perfect forms

The **present perfect tense** is sometimes used to present results of ongoing investigation.

The investigators **have found** that the ministers acted improperly.

Scientists **have discovered** a new vaccine.

The **past perfect tense** is used to record an action or state that may have continued for some time but is now at an end.

National defence **had become** urgent by the time he assumed office.

East European countries **had depended** on the Soviet Union for cheap oil.

The **future perfect tense** is useful for suggesting what might occur in the future, based on current knowledge.

By next week, they **will have presented** a new plan.

In six months, she **will have completed** her thesis.

Expressing future time

There are several ways of expressing future time apart from using 'will'. In most cases, these involve the use of some other time marker. Consider the following.

The Premier is going to visit China next year.

The next performance is starting in two hours.

Such time markers should be used with care in formal writing.

ACTIVE VOICE AND PASSIVE VOICE OF VERBS

When you write assignments or other texts on a word-processor, and then apply the spell checker and grammar checker, a wavy line sometimes appears under a sentence. Some Word programmes will further indicate that the sentence is in **passive voice**. What does this mean?

The **voice** of a verb is the form that the verb takes to show whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

Active voice

Active voice shows that the subject does something—acts upon—something named in the sentence.

Active voice emphasises the activity of the subject, and it is preferred in formal writing because it facilitates clear, direct and concise communication. Consider the following. The active verb is in **bold** type.

example 1

A passing yacht **rescued** the survivors.

(The subject is ‘yacht’. The thing acted on is ‘survivors’.)

The sentence emphasises the passing yacht’s action. What or whom it rescued is less important.

example 2

Caesar **wrote** the history of the wars in Gaul.

(The subject is ‘Caesar’. The thing acted on is ‘a history’.)

The sentence emphasises the fact that Caesar wrote. What he wrote receives less emphasis.

Passive voice

Passive voice indicates that the subject undergoes an action. It shifts the emphasis or focus of the statement. Consider the following. The passive verb phrases are in **bold** type.

example 1

The survivors **were rescued** by a passing yacht.

The passive voice emphasises the fact that the survivors were rescued. What rescued them is given less emphasis. Note the use of ‘by’ before ‘a passing yacht’.

example 2

The history of the wars in Gaul **was written** by Caesar.

The passive voice emphasises that the history was written. The name of the author is given less emphasis. Note the use of 'by' before 'Caesar'.

Forming the passive voice

The **passive voice** is formed with parts of the verb 'be' and the past participle. Compare the following. The verbs or verb phrases are in **bold** type.

Simple tenses

present

The physicist **wins** the Nobel Prize. – *active*

The Nobel Prize **is won** by the physicist. – *passive*

past

The physicist **won** the Nobel Prize. – *active*

The Nobel Prize **was won** by the physicist. – *passive*

future

The physicist **will win** the Nobel Prize. – *active*

The Nobel Prize **will be won** by the physicist. – *passive*

Perfect tenses

present

Anderson **has written** the screenplay. – *active*

The screenplay **has been written** by Anderson. – *passive*

past

Anderson **had written** the screenplay. – *active*

The screenplay **had been written** by Anderson. – *passive*

future

Anderson **will have written** the screenplay. – *active*

The screenplay **will have been written** by Anderson. – *passive*

Only two of the continuous forms are regularly used in the passive: simple present continuous and simple past continuous.

simple present continuous

Anderson **is writing** the screenplay. – *active*

The screenplay **is being written** by Anderson. – *passive*

simple past continuous

Anderson **was writing** the screenplay. – *active*

The screenplay **was being written** by Anderson. – *passive*

If your grammar checker indicates that you have written a sentence in **passive voice**, you have the option of rewriting it in active voice so that the sentence becomes more concise and direct.

Although it is usually preferable to use active voice, passive voice may be used when the aim is to emphasise the recipient of the action, or when the source or agent is unnecessary or inappropriate. Compare the following. The verb or verb phrase is in **bold** type.

We **added** three drops of iodine to the solution.

Three drops of iodine **were added** to the solution.

EXERCISE 3

Identify the following sentences as either **active** or **passive**.

1. More responsibility is being placed on individuals.
2. The space was designed for children.
3. The course aims to develop reading skills.
4. The novel was first published in 1903.
5. Social attitudes and peer pressure are affecting enrolments.
6. Many older Australians are worried about the future.
7. These microbes are perfectly adapted to their host.
8. The transport system remains focused on the inner city.
9. Hundreds of statues were crammed into the small room.
10. Australian shipyards have produced some remarkable vessels.





EXERCISE 4

Identify the following sentences as either **active** or **passive**.

1. A colour can be precisely specified by its hue, saturation and brightness.
2. Shareholders will soon receive information about dividends.
3. The accession of the duke was secured with the help of his grandfather.
4. In some parts of Australia, forest clearance continues on a large scale.
5. Action to reduce transportation noise is primarily aimed at aircraft and traffic.
6. Peripheral expansion remains the dominant feature of Sydney's growth.
7. Many older cars do not have effective pollution control devices.
8. Conclusions are reached on the basis of experimental evidence.
9. The frescoes will be thoroughly cleaned.
10. Australia's water use is neither optimal nor sustainable.



EXERCISE 5

Rewrite the following sentences, changing them from **passive** to **active**.

1. All human behaviour is shaped by experience.

2. The grasslands have been replaced by artificial pastures and wheatfields.

3. Each model has been influenced by a particular set of circumstances.

4. Winds are caused by uneven pressure in the atmosphere.

5. Both authors were given their awards by the Premier.

6. These roles are challenged by contemporary society.

7. This contention is supported by evidence from two different sources.

8. The availability of soil nutrients is influenced by soil pH.

9. The housing stock is dominated by detached dwellings.

10. The script was written by Faulkner.



EXERCISE 6

Rewrite the following sentences, changing them from **passive** to **active**.

1. These scholarships are being offered by the National Gallery of Australia.

2. The two main characters are linked by childhood friendship.

3. Continuing research is undertaken by the department.

4. Many valuable artefacts had been hidden by the museum staff.

5. The system is driven by the desire to provide minimum support.

6. Income support is received by approximately forty per cent of the group.

7. The lecturer was alarmed by the student's behaviour.

8. Subsidies to agriculture are being increased by the current government.

9. Much of the crime was organised by syndicates of gangsters and racketeers.

10. Tourists were discouraged from visiting the country by fear of crime.

EXTRA



MORE ABOUT PARTICIPIAL PHRASES

In Chapter 6, you learned about forming complex sentences using relative clauses. While the use of relative clauses is important, overuse results in wordiness. This can sometimes be overcome by replacing the relative clause with a participial phrase. This will make the sentence more compact, but it will also change the emphasis. A relative clause provides more emphasis than a participial phrase, so this technique needs to be used carefully. It is also necessary to remember that if the verb in the relative clause is **active, irrespective of tense**, it will be replaced by a **present participial phrase**. If the verb in the relative clause is **passive**, the relative clause will be replaced by a **past participial phrase**. Consider the following.

ACTIVE

example 1

using a relative clause

Insects or other vectors *that need specific minimum temperatures to thrive* spread many diseases.

using a present participial phrase

Insects or other vectors *needing specific minimum temperatures to thrive* spread many diseases.

example 2

using a relative clause

The disturbances *that came in the wake of European settlement* had dramatic consequences.

using a present participial phrase

The disturbances *coming in the wake of European settlement* had dramatic consequences.

The verb in the relative clause is **active**, so the relative clause is replaced by a **present participial phrase**.

PASSIVE

example 1

using a relative clause

By 1784, well over half the tea *that was drunk in Britain* had been smuggled into the country.

using a past participial phrase

By 1784, well over half the tea *drunk in Britain* had been smuggled into the country.

example 2

using a relative clause

During the sixteenth century, towns *that were placed to exploit commercial opportunities* flourished.

using a past participial phrase

During the sixteenth century, towns *placed to exploit commercial opportunities* flourished.

VERB MOODS: INDICATIVE MOOD AND IMPERATIVE MOOD

Mood is the form a verb takes to indicate the writer's attitude towards the subject.

Mood indicates whether a writer is **making a statement** (indicative mood), **giving a command** or **exhorting** (imperative mood), or **expressing a wish or something contrary to fact** (subjunctive mood).

Indicative mood

The **indicative mood** states a fact, expresses an opinion, or asks a question.

Sidney J. Baker published *A Popular Dictionary of Australian Slang* in 1941.

Many scholars do not believe that Baker gathered all his examples from speech that was still in use.

What evidence is there that some of the language was still in use?

Note that in formal writing, questions should be used very sparingly, if at all. Questions waste time in an essay, and they suggest that you are not prepared to adopt a point of view.

Imperative mood

The **imperative mood** is generally used in direct requests, commands or exhortations.

Please remain seated. – *request*

Stop playing with that while I am talking. – *command*

Let us consider the alternatives. – *exhortation*

Imperative mood is rarely employed in formal writing because it imparts a casual or intimate tone. The subject of a sentence using the imperative mood is implied, rather than stated.

Subjunctive Mood

The **subjunctive mood** is used to express a wish, a condition that is contrary to fact, a suggestion, or an urgent requirement. The subjunctive mood always implies future time, so it requires no future tenses.

The simple present subjunctive

The **simple present subjunctive** form is generally identical to the stem (the dictionary entry). This means that for most verbs, the use of the subjunctive is only obvious when the subject of the verb is third person singular. Consider the following. The subject and the verb are in **bold** type.

She insisted that **he work** harder.

She insisted that **they work** harder.

The exception is 'be', where the use of the subjunctive is always obvious. 'Be' is the verb that is used most extensively in the subjunctive.

The lecturer requested that **he be** quiet.

The simple past subjunctive

The **simple past subjunctive** is identical to the simple past indicative, so its use is rarely discernible. When 'be' is used and the subject of the verb is first or third person singular, its use is obvious.

If **I were** more diligent, I could win the prize.

If **he were** more diligent, he could win the prize.

The present perfect subjunctive

The **present perfect subjunctive** is identical to the present perfect indicative.

The past perfect subjunctive

The **past perfect subjunctive** is identical to the past perfect indicative.

Where a passive form is involved, only the form of the verb ‘be’ changes.

The **screenplay is written** by Anderson. – *indicative*

They insisted that the **screenplay be written** by Anderson.
– *subjunctive*

Using the subjunctive mood

1. Use the subjunctive form of the verb for unreal conditions (a wish or present desire that is contrary to fact).

Expressions commencing with ‘if’ or ‘wish’ generally suggest that an unreal condition (a hypothetical situation) follows.

If **he were** able to complete the task, he would have done so by now.

She wished that the **semester were** over.

Use ‘would’ and ‘could’ only in the main clause of sentence expressing a condition contrary to fact. The modal auxiliary is omitted in the clause beginning with ‘if’.

incorrect usage

If **he could have seen** the result of the law, he would not have supported it.

correct usage

If **he had seen** the result of the law, he would not have supported it.

2. Use the subjunctive form in clauses starting with 'that' after verbs such as 'ask', 'request', 'demand', 'suggest', 'order', 'insist', 'state' or 'command'

The flight attendant requested that **he remain** seated throughout the storm.

The Ambassador insisted that no **record be kept** of the talks.

3. Use the subjunctive form in clauses starting with 'that' after adjectives expressing urgency.

It is necessary that **she remain** seated throughout the ceremony.

It is essential that **he pay** the bill on time.

It is important that **students submit** assignments on time.



EXERCISE 7

Circle the correct form of the verb. Some sentences require the subjunctive; others do not.

1. If this conclusion (was / were) correct, the future of the project would be assured.
2. Williams demands that he (is / be) given Defence.
3. If the plane (arrives / arrive) before midnight, it will be allowed to land.
4. If a higher standard of child-care (was / were) mandatory, the cost would increase.
5. It is vital that justice (is / be) done.
6. If she (is / be) at home, she will answer the door.
7. If more food (was / were) produced, the price would decrease.
8. The scheme could be successful if the need (was / were) met.
9. If the use of petroleum products (continues / continue) to grow, dependence on imports will increase.
10. They will do their best to ensure that he (is / be) elected.

Chapter 9: Working with pronouns

In this chapter, you will learn to use pronouns accurately and effectively. You will learn about pronoun case (subjective, objective and possessive) including how to use 'who' and whom' correctly and how to use pronouns correctly in comparison sentences. You will also learn about pronoun antecedent agreement, how to ensure that a pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number and person, and how to ensure that the antecedent of a pronoun is not missing, ambiguous or repetitious.

In Chapter 1, you were introduced to personal pronouns used as subjects and possessive pronouns used as subjects and as adjectives. It is now time to take a closer look at **pronoun case** and **pronoun-antecedent agreement**.

Pronouns are frequently misused in colloquial speech, particularly when first and second person pronouns are used. For this reason, although you should generally avoid the use of first and second person pronouns in formal writing, they are included in the explanations and exercises in this chapter.

PRONOUN CASE

In many languages, the forms of pronouns, nouns and adjectives change depending on the role they play and their relationship to some other word or words in the sentence. This phenomenon is called **case**.

With the exception of personal pronouns, words in English do not usually change their forms. English personal pronouns have three cases.

Pronouns used as subjects are in the **subjective case**.

Pronouns used as objects are in the **objective case**.

Pronouns used to indicate ownership are in the **possessive case**.

subjective – **She** left the country.

objective – The Vice Chancellor congratulated **her**.

possessive – That is **her** book.

That is **hers**.

Note that some **possessive pronouns** have two forms. One form must be followed by a noun; the other form does not require a noun.

The table below shows the forms for the personal pronouns.

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

For the **possessive pronouns**, where there are two forms, the first is the form that must be followed by a noun. When the second form is used, make sure that what the pronoun refers to is clear.

Do not confuse **its** with **it's = it is**, or **their** with **they're = they are**.

Remember that contractions are not used in formal writing.

USING CASE ACCURATELY

Subjective case

Use **subjective case** when the pronoun is the **subject** of a verb.

She has consulted every article on the subject.

Objective case

Use **objective case** when the pronoun is the object of

1. a verb
2. a gerund
3. an infinitive
4. a participle
5. a preposition.

1. The gang *chased* **him** across the park. (*object of a verb*)
2. *Watching* **them** was a boring way to spend an afternoon. (*object of a gerund*)
3. Her parents hoped *to see* **her** graduate. (*object of an infinitive*)
4. *Leaving* **me** at the base camp, they began their attempt for the summit. (*object of a participle*)
5. Between **them**, they had more than fifty years teaching experience. (*object of a preposition*)

Use **objective case** when the pronoun comes immediately before an infinitive.

His parents wanted **him** to study medicine.

Possessive case

Use the **possessive case** to indicate ownership of an object or close connection to it. Note that possessive pronouns do not have apostrophes.

Her first novel was nominated for the Booker Prize.

His was not nominated.

They were employed because of **their** qualifications and experience.

Theirs was not appropriate.

Use the **possessive case** before a gerund.

His singing did not impress the reviewers.

Their talking distracted the violinist.



EXTRA

NOTES ON 'AMONG' and 'BETWEEN'

'Among', like other prepositions, favours objective case (pronoun used as object), and it is always followed by a plural ('among them'; 'among us').

'Amongst' is generally regarded as affected or over-formal. 'Amongst' used to be favoured when it came before a word starting with a vowel, for the sake of euphony (smoothness of sound). When it comes before a word starting with a consonant, it can sound awkward.

If you are referring to **two** nouns or pronouns, use 'between', rather than 'among'.

'Between' also favours objective case ('between you and me', 'between him and her', 'between them and us').

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

Reflexive pronouns are used when the subject and the object of the verb are identical; that is, where the subject acts on itself.

She tested **herself**.

He hurt **himself**.

Reflexive pronouns can also be used as intensifiers.

They wrote it **themselves**.

We did it **ourselves**.

Many people use a reflexive pronoun when they should use a personal pronoun in the subjective or the objective case.

example 1

incorrect

The mayor and myself will present the awards.

correct

The mayor and I will present the awards.

example 2

incorrect

The award was presented to Peter and myself.

correct

The award was presented to Peter and me.

Compound constructions

When the subject or the object is compound, the same rules apply; however, it is often easier to choose the correct pronoun if you read the sentence without one of the pronouns. Consider the following.

example 1

He and (I / me) have avoided them for years.

To determine the correct pronoun, try the sentence without 'He and'.

I have avoided them for years.

Me have avoided them for years.

It should now be obvious that the correct pronoun is 'I'.

He and I have avoided them for years.

example 2

The research grant was given to her and (I / me).

To determine the correct pronoun, try the sentence without 'her'.

The research grant was given to I.

The research grant was given to me.

It should now be obvious that the correct pronoun is 'me'.

The research grant was given to her and me.



EXERCISE 1

Choose the correct pronoun in each of the following sentences.

1. They and (we / us) decided to go to the concert.
2. She and (he / him) had been friends for more than twenty years
3. The choice was between him and (I / me).
4. (She / her) and I are both interested in contemporary art.
5. They were not prepared to discuss the matter with (he / him) and (I / me).
6. The arrangement was between Tony and (we / us).
7. (He / him) and I have agreed to disagree.
8. They met Simon and (she / her) at the Post Office.
9. Janice and (I / me) enjoyed the performance.
10. Rebecca arrived after you and (I / me).

Who, whom and whose

The only other pronoun that has more than one form is **who**.

subjective case – who

objective case – whom

possessive case – whose

Who and **whom** are so misused in colloquial speech as to suggest that there is no distinction between the words. In writing, however, you should make the effort to use the words correctly. If you are worried that ‘whom’ sounds old-fashioned in certain sentence constructions, you should try to rephrase your sentence in order to avoid writing an awkward sentence.

You will avoid a good deal of difficulty in writing if you remember that ‘who’ is **subjective case**. The word ‘whom’ is **objective case**.

When the pronoun is used in the subject position, choose ‘who’. When the pronoun is in the object position, choose ‘whom’.

Both ‘who’ and ‘whom’ may add ‘ever’ to become ‘whoever’ and ‘whomever’. When this occurs, the same rules apply.

example 1

He did not know **whom** to believe.

The subject of the sentence is 'He', and 'whom' is the object of the verb 'know'. It is not unusual to hear the erroneous form, 'He did not know who to believe' in colloquial speech.

example 2

The Minister, **whom** they took to be a foolish man, refused to speak about his dismissal.

The subject of the sentence is 'they', and 'Minister' is the object of the verb 'took'. The pronoun must agree with the object that it refers to, so 'whom' is correct.

example 3

She was the student **who** wrote the poem.

'She' is the subject of the sentence. 'Who' is the subject of the relative clause.

example 4

She is the student to **whom** we gave the prize.

'She' is the subject; 'is' is the verb, and 'student whom' completes the object of 'is'. In general, unless possession is indicated, use 'whom' when the relative pronoun is preceded by a preposition.

EXERCISE 2

Choose the correct pronoun in each of the following sentences.

1. The scientist (who / whom) discovered the new virus won a Nobel Prize.
2. The man (who / whom) he had attacked was in a serious condition.
3. The narrator, (who / whom) is notoriously unreliable, should not be confused with the author.
4. Help was given to (whoever / whomever) needed it.
5. The woman (who / whom) survived the plane crash sold her story to the tabloid press.



6. The man (who / whom) they had seen in the shopping centre looked like the suspect.
7. She is the one (who / whom) he is hoping to meet.
8. The culprits, (whoever / whomever) they may be, will eventually be caught.
9. Her parents, (who / whom) she feared, forced her to end the relationship.
10. The award was given to the student (who / whom) had raised the most money.

Whose

Use **whose** to indicate ownership of an object or close connection to it. Do not confuse **whose** and **who's = who is**. Remember that contractions are not used in formal writing. Consider the following.

He is a singer **whose** voice is past its peak.

The State Emergency Service assisted residents **whose** houses had been damaged.

He is the man **whose** application for bail was rejected.

Comparisons

A comparison sentence is another type of complex sentence; that is, subordination is used to join two clauses. In a comparison sentence, however, it is always the second clause that is subordinate. Sometimes, this relationship is not obvious because a number of words may be omitted to avoid needless repetition and because the comparison sentence usually refers to scale rather than absolute value. Consider the following.

example 1

independent clauses

He is 185 centimetres tall.

She is 176 centimetres tall.

complex sentences

1. He is taller than she [is tall].

2. He is taller than she.

In the first sentence, the relationship between the clauses is clear, but the last two words are unnecessary. The omission of the unnecessary words is called *ellipsis*, and it is common in comparison sentences.

Comparison sentences can be used to indicate similarity or difference. Consider the following.

example 2

independent clauses

The magazine costs \$16.95.

The novel costs \$16.95.

complex sentences

1. The magazine costs as much as the novel.
2. The magazine is as expensive as the novel.
3. The magazine is as cheap as the novel.

example 3

independent clauses

The magazine costs \$16.95.

The novel costs \$29.95.

complex sentences

1. The magazine is cheaper than the novel.
2. The novel is more expensive than the magazine.
3. The novel costs more than the magazine.
4. The magazine costs less than the novel.

When you are working with a comparison sentence, try to complete the second clause in order to choose the correct form of the pronoun.

example 4

She is as old as (I / me).

Step 1: Complete the second clause.

She is as old as (I / me) am old.

Step 2: Choose the correct pronoun.

She is as old as I.

example 5

The decision surprised him more than (I / me).

Step 1: Complete the second clause.

The decision surprised him more than the decision surprised (I / me).

Step 2: Choose the correct pronoun.

The decision surprised him more than me.

example 6

Their results were not as good as (our / ours).

Step 1: Complete the second clause.

Their results were not as good as (our / ours) results were.

Step 2: Choose the correct pronoun.

If 'results' were repeated, the correct pronoun would be 'our'.

Their results were not as good as our results were.

Because 'results' is not repeated, the correct pronoun is 'ours'.

Their results were not as good as ours.



EXERCISE 3

Choose the correct pronoun in each of the following sentences.

1. She did not write as much as (I / me).
2. The lecturer gave the other students more time than (we / us).
3. Their opponents were more aggressive than (they / them).
4. She did more research than (he / him).
5. We could not afford as much as (they / them).
6. They had more leisure time than (we / us).
7. A good report is more important to her than to (I / me).
8. They paid more for the tickets than (we / us).
9. He was given more encouragement than (she / her).
10. We felt the cold more than (they / them).

PRONOUN-ANTECEDENT AGREEMENT

Number

A pronoun must agree in **number** with any word to which it refers.

Singular pronouns go with singular nouns or pronouns.

Plural pronouns go with plural nouns or pronouns.

Consider the following. The pronoun and its antecedent are in **bold** type.

example 1

The **message** was delivered in many different ways, but **it** was always the same message.

In this sentence, ‘it’ refers to ‘message’. Because the **antecedent** is singular, the pronoun is also singular.

example 2

Camels can survive for long periods without water, and **they** can travel up to 70 kilometres a day.

In this sentence, ‘they’ refers to ‘camels’. Because the **antecedent** is plural, the pronoun is also plural.

IDENTIFYING AND CORRECTING NUMBER ERRORS IN PRONOUN-ANTECEDENT AGREEMENT

example 1

As a **child** grows older, **they** tend to establish firm or relatively permanent peer-group relationships.

In this sentence, ‘they’ (plural) refers to ‘child’ (singular), so the noun and the pronoun do not agree in number. Although such lack of agreement is common in colloquial speech, it should be avoided in formal writing.

possible solutions

1. As a **child** grows older, **he** tends to establish firm or relatively permanent peer-group relationships.

The use of ‘he’ when ‘a child’ can be male or female is regarded as sexist, and it should be avoided. If you are referring to a particular child, and the gender of the child is known, the correctly gendered pronoun should be used.

2. As a **child** grows older, **he or she** tends to establish firm or relatively permanent peer-group relationships.

The use of ‘he or she’ or ‘she or he’, is awkward, especially if it is repeated a number of times. Variations such as ‘he/she’, ‘she/he’ or ‘s/he’ should never be used in formal writing.

3. As **children** grow older, **they** tend to establish firm or relatively permanent peer-group relationships.

Here, the subject of the first clause is changed from a singular to a plural. This is usually the best solution to the problem of faulty pronoun reference.

example 2

A **worker** should have the opportunity to obtain a job commensurate with **their** ability.

In this sentence, ‘their’ (plural) refers to ‘worker’ (singular), so the noun and the pronoun do not agree in number.

possible solutions

1. A **worker** should have the opportunity to obtain a job commensurate with **his** ability.

The use of ‘his’ when ‘a worker’ can be male or female is sexist, and it should be avoided. If you are referring to a particular worker, and the gender of the worker is known, the correctly gendered pronoun should be used.

2. A **worker** should have the opportunity to obtain a job commensurate with **his or her** ability.

The use of ‘his or her’ or ‘her or his’ is awkward, especially if it is repeated a number of times. Variations such as ‘his/her’ or ‘her/his’ should never be used in formal writing.

3. **Workers** should have the opportunity to obtain jobs commensurate with **their** abilities.

Here, the subject of the first clause is changed from a singular to a plural, a number of other changes have been made. Note the change from ‘job’ to ‘jobs’ and ‘ability’ to ‘abilities’. This is the best solution to the problem of faulty pronoun reference.

example 3

With practice, almost **anyone** can improve **their** writing skills.

In this sentence, ‘their’ (plural) refers to ‘anyone’ (singular), so the pronouns do not agree in number.

possible solutions

1. With practice, almost **anyone** can improve **his** writing skills.

The use of ‘his’ when ‘anyone’ can be male or female is sexist, and it should be avoided.

2. With practice, almost **anyone** can improve **his or her** writing skills.

The use of ‘his or her’ or ‘her or his’ is awkward, especially if it is repeated a number of times. Variations such as ‘his/her’ or ‘her/his’ should never be used in formal writing.

3. With practice, most **people** can improve **their** writing skills.

Here, the subject and its modifier are replaced with synonyms to create a plural subject. This is the best solution to the problem of faulty pronoun reference.

4. With practice, almost anyone’s writing skills will improve.

In this sentence, the problem of faulty pronoun reference is avoided altogether.



EXERCISE 4

Rewrite the following sentences so that the pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number.

1. When someone is running for office, they essentially have one message: 'Vote for me'.

2. A leader only gains their authority over a group by group consensus.

3. A child gradually develops a better understanding of their own behaviour and that of others.

4. A person wants to feel safe in their own home.

5. If a student does not gain any satisfaction from their course, they will not perform well.

6. Each participant must provide a short summary of their experience in the industry.

7. Until a child enters school, their life is usually centred among members of their immediate family.

8. A person is hired for a specific job because they have acquired the necessary training and skills in a particular field.

9. A worker may feel alienated from their job and lack motivation.

10. As a person grows older, their ability to adapt declines.



EXERCISE 5

Rewrite the following sentences so that the pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number.

1. A number of variables influence the language a person uses and the definitions they give to words.

2. A person's income has a direct bearing on their quality of life.

3. A great leader is not born; they can be trained.

4. In a peer group, a child finds a context in which they can experience a considerable degree of independent and self-determined action.

5. If a person wants to get things done in a group or organisation, it helps if they have power.

6. Each participant sets parameters within which they operate.

7. A resident is told the kind of pets they may have, the paint they can put on their walls and when they may use the laundry.

8. Each has their own purpose and conditions.

9. The contributor to the book received little recognition for their labour.

10. No child should fear their parents.



EXERCISE 6

Rewrite the following sentences so that the pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number.

1. Unless an individual is an accepted member of some group, they will be in trouble.

2. Each ambassador maintained their own spy network.

3. Everyone of the accused was given leave to appeal against their sentence.

4. Every newspaper proprietor used the papers to launch their political careers.

5. Each colony sought to promote their own advantage.

6. The Air Force offered apprenticeships and degree programmes to anyone who wished to further their careers.

7. A person functions at their best when they have a reasonable level of anxiety.

8. Everyone experiences conflict in different aspects of their life.

9. When a person speaks to another, they inevitably emit non-verbal signals as well.

10. A person's past experiences will influence their views.

Person

Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in **person**.

Consider the following. The pronoun and its antecedent are in **bold** type.

example 1

The study of human relations in the past century has established that treating **workers** mechanically causes **you** to feel alienated.

In this example, 'you' (second person) is incorrect. The correct pronoun is 'them' (third person).

revised

The study of human relations in the past century has established that treating **workers** mechanically causes **them** to feel alienated.

example 2

The university expects all **students** to submit **your** assignments on the due date.

In this example, 'your' (second person) is incorrect. The correct pronoun is 'their' (third person).

revised

The university expects all **students** to submit **their** assignments on the due date.

The sentence could also be revised by deleting the possessive pronoun.

The university expects all **students** to submit assignments on the due date.

If you avoid the use of first and second person pronouns in formal writing, you will avoid person errors in pronoun-antecedent agreement.

MORE ABOUT PRONOUNS

The antecedent of a pronoun should not be **missing**, **ambiguous**, or **repetitious**.

Missing antecedent

This is an old favourite in colloquial speech.

In this film, **they** show people living in Melbourne.

On the news, **they** had a story about refugees in the Indian Ocean.

These are both incorrect in terms of formal grammar. Who ‘they’ are is not known. ‘They’ has no antecedent noun. A revised version would remove the mystery about ‘they’.

revised

This film shows people living in Melbourne.

The news had a story about refugees in the Indian Ocean.

Ambiguous antecedent

Napoleon told Marshall Ney that he would commence his attack as soon as he had received the news.

Problem: ‘He’ and ‘his’ could refer to either General. Which General will begin the attack as soon as an order is given? (And which of the Generals is to give the order?)

revised

As soon as he had received the news, Napoleon told Marshall Ney to commence the attack.

Repetitious pronoun and antecedent

The **textbook**, **it** says that computerised grammar checkers cannot help with agreement between pronoun and antecedent.

revised

The textbook says that computerised grammar checkers cannot help with agreement between pronoun and antecedent.



EXERCISE 7

Rewrite the following sentences so that the antecedents are not **missing**, **ambiguous** or **repetitious**.

1. On the ABC, they are showing a documentary about platypuses.

2. When her book was published, Julie and Caroline celebrated her achievement.

3. In 1851, they discovered gold at Ophir near Bathurst.

4. As soon as he finished it, McCrae told Howarth that his elegy was the finest poem he had written.

5. They expanded the scheme to include assistance to low-income families.

6. The engineer, he said that strong winds had caused the bridge to collapse.

7. When he was leaving, Jack told Lindsay that he had enjoyed his visit.

8. The majority of Australians, they live in coastal cities.

9. They usually use structured interviews that are brief and formal.

10. In the article, it says that leisure has an important place in Australian society.



Chapter 10: Parallel construction

In this chapter, you will learn how to write more effective sentences by using parallel construction.

Parallel construction indicates the writer's concern for clear communication by emphasising the balance of grammatical elements in a sentence. Parallel construction is used to show an equivalent relationship between two or more equivalent ideas. The same grammatical form is used to forcibly express the resulting sentence.

Non-parallel form (faulty expression) is the result of combining dissimilar grammatical elements.

Sentence elements are parallel when one element matches another in a series. The elements may be nouns, adjectives, verbs, infinitives, adverbs, prepositions participles or gerunds.

Nouns in parallel

The Master made use of four things in his teaching: literature, life's realities, loyalty, good faith. (*Analects of Confucius*, 7.25)

The animals outside looked from pig to man, and from man to pig, and from pig to man again, but already it was impossible to say which was which. (George Orwell)

The bones, sinews and nerves of modern civilisation are coal, steel, cotton and wheat. (B. Traven)

Pride goes before destruction, and shame comes after.

Youth is a blunder, manhood a struggle, old age a regret.
(Benjamin Disraeli)

Home is the girl's prison and the woman's workhouse.
(George Bernard Shaw)

Adjectives in parallel

The report was jargon-ridden, convoluted and inaccurate.

He was talented and reliable, resolute and courageous, faithful and generous. (La Bruyère)

Verbs in parallel

Note how ideas are coupled in the following sentences.

There never was an artistic period; there never was an art-loving nation. (James McNeill Whistler)

I came, I saw, I conquered. (Julius Caesar)

Infinitives in parallel

Better to remain silent and to be thought a fool than to speak out and (to) remove all doubt. (Abraham Lincoln)

Adverbs in parallel

She made notes on the research paper conscientiously, thoroughly and promptly.

I'll play it first and tell you what it is later. (Miles Davis)

God sometimes sends a famine, sometimes a pestilence, and sometimes a hero for the chastisement of mankind; none of them, surely, for our admiration. (Walter Savage Landor)

Prepositions in parallel

They were led by a sense of adventure and a love of ruins.

Participles in parallel

Shouting, name-calling and hissing, the audience booed the play off the stage.

Gerunds in parallel

The climbers found relaxation in reading, singing and story-telling.

Articles in parallel

Note that articles ('a', 'an', and 'the') should be consistent in a series. The article should be written before the first item only, or consistently repeated before each item.

faulty construction

At the Post Office, she collected a letter, a registered package, parcel and money order.

parallel construction

At the Post Office, she collected a letter, a registered package, a parcel and a money order.

OR

At the Post Office, she collected a letter, registered package, parcel and money order.

Sentences with coordinated words

In sentences that contain two or more coordinated phrases or clauses, the phrases or clauses should have identical form.

The mind of a bigot is like the pupil of an eye; the more light you pour into it, the more it will contract. (Oliver Wendell Holmes)

We have three kinds of friends: those who love us, those who are indifferent to us, and those who hate us. (Nicolas de Chamfort)

The gentleman considers the whole rather than the parts; the small man considers the parts rather than the whole. (Confucius)

REVISING NON-PARALLEL SENTENCES

Sometimes it is necessary to revise a sentence in order to achieve the precision and conciseness of parallel structure.

faulty construction

The National Park has a boating area, a swimming area and an area to fish.

parallel construction

The National Park has boating, swimming and fishing areas.

REVISING SENTENCES WITH COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

Words or phrases joined by coordinating conjunctions such as ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘or’, ‘nor’, ‘so’, and ‘yet’ should be constructed in parallel form.

example 1

faulty construction

Some people believe in reincarnation, some believe that Heaven exists, and some that death is final.

parallel construction

Some people believe in reincarnation, some in Heaven, and some in the finality of death.

example 2

faulty construction

The Council advised that the development plan should be sent back for amendment; otherwise, it should be rejected.

parallel construction

The Council advised that the development plan should be amended or rejected.

Words and phrases joined by such pairs of coordinating conjunctions as ‘not only ... but (also)’, ‘either ... or’, ‘neither ... nor’, and ‘both ... and’ should be constructed in parallel form.

The documentary was not only poorly constructed, but (also) tediously long.

In 1936, not only was compulsory voting introduced into Western Australia, but Florence Gillies Cardell-Oliver was elected as the first woman member of the Western Australian Legislative Assembly.

The temple was built either in the last years of the third century or in the early years of the fourth.

The Project Officer brought neither the site map nor the shadow diagrams to the inquiry.

It is sometimes necessary to revise a statement entirely to correct faulty construction.

example 3

faulty construction

The Writers’ Centre invited applications for an assistant to not only maintain the Web site but also for maintaining the membership list.

parallel construction

The Writers’ Centre invited applications for an assistant to maintain both the Web site and the membership list.

CLAUSES THAT BEGIN WITH 'WHO' OR 'WHICH'

Balance clauses that begin with 'who' or 'which' with earlier 'who' or 'which' clauses (even if the pronoun is not repeated).

example

faulty construction

She was a singer who lived in the country, and she wrote political songs.

parallel construction

She was a singer who lived in the country and [who] wrote political songs.

Note that removal of the second 'who' makes for a more concise sentence.

PREPOSITIONS IN PARALLEL

Note that appropriate prepositions must be used to govern the noun or pronoun to which they refer.

example

faulty construction

Given training, workers can acquire skills and interest in other jobs.

parallel construction

Given training, workers can acquire skills *for* and interest *in* other jobs.

AVOIDING ANTICLIMAX IN PARALLEL SENTENCES

Use ascending order of importance in parallel constructions in order to avoid anticlimax.

example 1

faulty construction

The attack destroyed 200 homes, killed 400 people, and it obliterated a shopping centre.

parallel construction

The attack obliterated a shopping centre, destroyed 200 houses and killed 400 people.

Sometimes, the faulty sentence can be more radically revised for brevity and accuracy.

example 2

faulty construction

The Vice-Chancellor's speech addressed the funding crisis, ways of improving performance and it was twenty minutes long.

parallel construction

The Vice-Chancellor's twenty-minute speech addressed the funding crisis and ways of improving performance.

THE USE OF PARALLELISM FOR CLARITY AND EMPHASIS

Sometimes it is necessary to repeat a word to avoid confusion.

example

confusing

He stood up for his principles by not registering to vote and paying a fine.

The sentence should be revised to inform the reader whether the fine was paid or not.

revised

He stood up for his principles by not registering to vote and by not paying a fine.



EXERCISE 1

Revise the following sentences so that the elements are parallel.

1. They studied Indonesian Politics, International Relations, and they also took a course in Islamic Economics.

2. By the Middle Ages, watermills were important for grinding grain, to saw timber, and to pump water.

3. People in service industries use their personal skills for solving problems and to make life easier for their customers.

4. Good writing should be accurate, clear, and conciseness is also required.

5. An obvious way to arrest tree decline is to plant new trees and protecting existing remnant natural vegetation.

6. Newspapers in Australia often send second-string critics to review theatre productions or freelance critics are sent.

7. The river passes Echuca, Corowa, and then it passes Balranald.

8. They spent their evenings repairing their equipment, and they wrote their journals.

9. The Roman orator Cicero told the jury that they must listen, weigh, and that it was necessary for them to decide.

10. A speech situation consists of three things: a speaker, a subject, and someone who should be addressed.



EXERCISE 2

Revise the following sentences so that the elements are parallel.

1. He worked for a time as a printer, and also edited a paper.

2. The Chief Executive Officer was rewarded because she had increased the firm's efficiency and increasing the firm's profits.

3. Peter liked planting trees, tending vines and he landscaped gardens.

4. DVDs are easier to operate, less bulky to store and we can post them with less expense.

5. The avocados were not fresh and tasted woody.

6. The Festival Committee preferred to hire a publicity agent rather than trying to do the work themselves.

7. The visiting lecturer answered the reporter abruptly and with no patience.

8. The audience left at intermission and the second half of the play was boycotted by them.

9. The students were told to complete the assignment by Friday and next they should hand it in by 5 pm.

10. The aim of the workshop was to promote fluent email communication and how minutes should be recorded with accuracy.



EXERCISE 3

Revise the following sentences so that the elements are parallel.

1. Capital punishment is irreversible, inhumane and costs a lot of money.

2. Family reunions tend to involve more planning, more people and are more formal than family visits.

3. High job satisfaction has been found to reduce depression and make people healthier.

4. A small hallway leads from the verandah to a drawing room, a sitting room, and a room for dining.

5. Running a recording studio involves general management, bookings, administration, engineering and keeping it maintained.

6. Most colonial buildings were not built by unskilled labourers using trial and error methods, but master craftsmen built them using known and regulated techniques.

7. Most people value flexibility, life options and liking their jobs.

8. World agricultural production could be greatly increased, but there are economic obstacles, and also social and educational ones.

9. The creek was littered with plastic bags, broken bottles, and there were shopping trolleys in it.

10. The hotel had large rooms, and they were tastefully furnished.



EXTRA

MODIFICATION

A **modifier** is a word or group of words (phrase or clause) that gives more information, usually about nouns or verbs. In most cases, you will probably have no difficulty using modifiers correctly. There are, however, instances where you need to take extra care to avoid **misplaced, dangling** or **intrusive modifiers**.

A modifier is misplaced when the relationship between the modifier and the word or phrase it modifies is not clear. Consider the following.

misplaced modifier

Negotiating the treaty, the final version took the ambassadors two days to formulate.

revised

The ambassadors negotiating the treaty took two days to formulate the final version.

OR

Negotiating the treaty, the ambassadors took two days to formulate the final version.

misplaced modifier

Black clothing was a sign of good taste in the Renaissance, which was the prerogative of wealthy and noble persons.

revised

Black clothing, which was the prerogative of wealthy and noble persons, was a sign of good taste in the Renaissance.

A modifier is dangling when there is no word or phrase in the sentence that can be logically modified. Consider the following.

dangling modifier

While playing in the garden, a brown snake bit her.

revised

While she was playing in the garden, a brown snake bit her.

dangling modifier

Standing on the hill, the river could be seen winding down the valley.

revised

Standing on the hill, they could see the river winding down the valley.

dangling modifier

After breaking her arm, her partner had to help her to shower.

revised

After she broke her arm, her partner had to help her to shower.

A modifier is intrusive when it interrupts a sentence in a way that makes the sentence difficult to understand. Consider the following.

intrusive modifier

She tried to at least twice a year visit her mother.

revised

She tried to visit her mother at least twice a year.

intrusive modifier

Edward had, without any thought for his safety, leapt off the cliff into the sea.

revised

Without any thought for his safety, Edward had leapt off the cliff into the sea.

Chapter 11: Capitalisation and punctuation

This chapter covers aspects of capitalisation and punctuation that are essential for formal writing. You will learn about when to capitalise and when not to capitalise, about the use of essential punctuation marks including the full stop, the comma, the colon, the semicolon and the apostrophe. You will also learn about the use of numerals in formal writing.

In general, the recommendations follow the *Style manual for authors, editors and printers*, 6th edition, which should be consulted if more information is required. This chapter does not include specific information about the citation of other sources.

CAPITALISATION

Capitalise the first word of every sentence.

These goals are interrelated.

Capitalise people's names.

Noel Pearson, Kevin Rudd, Brad Pitt,
Carmen Lawrence, Kay Patterson

Capitalise professional titles only when they are used with the person's name.

The award was presented by Professor Tyler.

BUT

The professor gave an interesting speech.

Capitalise the names of specific buildings and structures.

They visited the Australian Museum.

BUT

They visited the museum.

He designed the Aswan Dam.

BUT

He designed the dam.

Capitalise the names of specific streets.

The house is in Garibaldi Street.

BUT

It is a long street.

Capitalise the names of cities, states and countries.

Brisbane is the capital of Queensland.

Wellington is the capital of New Zealand.

Capitalise the names of organisations and institutions.

She was transferred to the head office of the United Nations.

He was a lecturer at the University of New England.

Capitalise the days of the week and the months of the year.

She left the island last Tuesday.

They are expected to arrive in late December.

Do not capitalise the names of seasons.

It was an unusually cold winter.

Planting occurs in spring.

Capitalise public holidays, religious days and public events.

Australia Day, Anzac Day, Labour Day, Christmas Day,
Ramadan, Passover, Olympic Games, Tour de France,
World Cup

Capitalise words that identify nationalities and other specific groups of people.

Australians, Indonesians, Mexicans, New Zealanders,
the Mekeo, Europeans, the Inuit

Capitalise the names of religions and languages.

Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism
English, Korean, Latin, Greek, Japanese

PUNCTUATION

The full stop (.)

Use a full stop at the end of a sentence.

There are few major employers in the town.

Tourism affects local cultures in many ways.

The other two end stops, or terminating marks, the question mark and the exclamation mark, should only be used in formal writing if the mark is part of a direct quotation.

The comma (,)

Use commas to separate items in a list.

Oranges, lemons, mandarins, grapefruit, kumquats and tangelos are citrus fruits.

The researchers examined physical health, functional ability, social contact, psychological distress and cognitive ability.

Note that a comma is not used before the 'and' that separates the last two items.

If ambiguity is possible, a comma may be used before the 'and' that separates the last two items.

Second-hand booksellers in Sydney included Greenwoods, Tyrells, and Angus and Robertson.

Use commas to separate the elements of a location.

The meteorite was found in a dam near Guyra, New South Wales.

The incident occurred in Little Rock, Arkansas.

Use a comma after an introductory word or phrase.

Finally, restructuring has affected public sector employment and services.

In some ways, the eye acts like a camera.

Use commas before and after an appositive phrase.

Appetite, the desire for food, is entirely different from hunger.

Tattooing, the practice of introducing pigment under the skin, varies greatly in methods and results.

Use commas before and after any word or phrase that interrupts the main idea.

Work roles and family roles are, however, often incompatible.

Longevity, on the other hand, has extended the later stages of the family life cycle.

Use a comma before a coordinating conjunction when writing a compound sentence.

Most foods have some energy value, but this varies greatly from food to food.

Vegetables are in demand at all times of year, so there must be a steady supply.

Use a comma after an adverbial conjunction when you are writing a compound sentence.

Written tests of achievement are a common form of measurement; however, it is not always easy to construct a good test.

A test of ability must be able to evaluate people in the same way each time; otherwise, it is useless for research purposes.

Use a comma in a complex sentence where the dependent clause appears first to separate the dependent clause and the independent clause.

Until the modern tattooing device was invented in the 1980s, tattooing was always a painful and potentially dangerous operation.

Although women form 52 per cent of the world's population, there is no government in the world where 52 per cent of the politicians are women.

Use commas to set off non-restrictive relative clauses.

Scurvy, which is due to a shortage of Vitamin C, was once common.

Their accomplice, who had gone into hiding, was discovered and arrested three days later.

Use commas to avoid ambiguity.

example 1

ambiguous

Peter saw the wallaby in the National Park; Tim the sugar glider.

revised with a comma

Peter saw the wallaby in the National Park, Tim, the sugar glider.

example 2

ambiguous

The besieging army remained for two years until the fortress fell and moved on.

revised with a comma

The besieging army remained for two years until the fortress fell, and moved on.

Do not use a comma before the verb in sentences where the subject is modified by one or more prepositional phrases.

example 1

incorrect

The increase in the size of the world's population, is not the only important demographic change to occur in the past few hundred years.

correct

The increase in the size of the world's population is not the only important demographic change to occur in the past few hundred years.

example 2

incorrect

One of the most common ritual uses of odour across cultures, is to combat illness.

correct

One of the most common ritual uses of odour across cultures is to combat illness.

EXERCISE 1

Use commas where required to punctuate the following sentences.



1. Coogee south of Bronte and Clovelly was a favourite of Roberts Streeton and Conder.
2. Bullying peer violence involving intimidation of smaller weaker or different people occurs most often in school at home and in the neighbourhood.
3. Almost all reports of nineteenth century fur sealers describe them as rough violent drunken and brutal.
4. Friendship involves mutual respect esteem and affection.
5. The proportion of households headed by a single adult usually the mother has increased sharply.
6. Demography is a science concerned with the analysis of the size distribution structure characteristics and processes of a population.
7. Clouds consist of minute water droplets ice crystals or a mixture of both.
8. John Stuart Mill the English political philosopher and economist was one of the leading intellectuals of his time.
9. Social behaviour in animals is related to basic biological needs for food shelter defence against predators reproduction and care of their young.
10. Osteoporosis diabetes and multiple sclerosis are all degenerative diseases.

EXERCISE 2

Use commas where required to punctuate the following sentences.



1. Many animals including humans store fat under the skin.
2. The size of a town influences the types of services it can provide and the nature of the demand for retail activities library services schools housing community services and economic infrastructure.
3. The current building completed in 1547 stands on the site of the original church.

4. By the late 1980s the vehemence of the debate had begun to ebb.
5. The company's founder Robert Gordon was born at Parramatta on 23 June 1903.
6. Avocados asparagus melons beans fresh dates strawberries and lychees are air-freighted from gardens in the tropics to the tables of affluent westerners.
7. Human populations like all living things have the potential to grow at an exponential rate.
8. The United States where the first oil well was drilled in 1859 was for a time the world's leading oil producer but its reserves have dwindled.
9. Very little research however has assessed the relative significance of these contradictory theories.
10. Land clearing destroys or at least injures flora and fauna.

The colon (:)

Use a colon to introduce a list if what appears before the colon is an independent clause.

There are three kinds of muscular tissue in the human body: skeletal, smooth and cardiac.

Six different emotions are represented clearly on the human face: happiness, sadness, surprise, fear, anger and disgust.

Use a colon between the title and the subtitle of a book or article.

Social psychology: understanding human interaction
– a book

'Conservation leadership: a focus for sustainable communities' – an article

Note that the titles of books usually appear in *italics*. The titles of articles are not italicised; instead, they appear in single quotation marks.

The semicolon (;)

Use a semicolon before an adverbial conjunction when you are writing a compound sentence.

The knowledge of vertebrates has grown rapidly in recent decades; nevertheless, there is still much to be discovered.

Use a semicolon to join two independent clauses with the same structure.

The land was flat and sandy; the scrub was low lying.

The tenor was outstanding; the counter-tenor was less impressive.

Use a semicolon to separate items in a list to avoid confusion.

Allen and Unwin; Angus and Robertson; and Puncher and Wattmann publish Australian authors.

The apostrophe (')

Use the apostrophe in formal writing to indicate possession.

For singular nouns, place the apostrophe before the s.

The country's health system is in crisis.

Take care that you do not use a possessive apostrophe when the plural form of the noun is required, or a plural form when the possessive is required.

incorrect

The universities budget has been cut.

correct

The university's budget has been cut. – *one university*

The universities' budgets have been cut. – *more than one university*

For plural nouns that end in s, place the apostrophe after the s.

The teachers' salaries have been increased.

For plural nouns that do not end in s, add an apostrophe and s to form the possessive.

The children's toys were scattered around the room.

Where a personal name ends in s, it is now acceptable to add an apostrophe and s to show possession.

Great Expectations was written twenty-five years after Dickens's first great success with *Pickwick Papers*.

Jones's theory revolutionised the discipline.

Placenames that appear to involve possessives are written without apostrophes.

Bells Beach, Dangars Falls, Hogues Creek, Wilsons Promontory, Mays Hill, Nobbys Beach

The names of certain public holidays or events that appear to involve possessives are written without apostrophes.

Mothers Day, Fathers Day

BUT

Queen's Birthday

The names of certain organisations and institutions that appear to involve possessives are written without apostrophes.

Building Workers Union, Securities Commission

Do not add an apostrophe to shortened forms of years to make them plural.

The 1890s were a period of rapid social change.

Her acting career peaked in the 1970s.

To show joint ownership, add an apostrophe and s to the last word only.

Watson and Crick's achievement was recognised by the committee.

South and MacDonald's book provides a clear introduction to the topic.

If ownership is not joint, add an apostrophe and s to each name.

Mahler's and Messiaen's songs have little in common.

Green's and Johnson's novels have been shortlisted for the prize.

In many cases, the sentence may be revised to avoid the use of possessive apostrophes.

The songs of Mahler and those of Messiaen have little in common.

Green and Johnson have both had novels shortlisted for the prize.

Avoid clumsy uses of possessives.

example 1

clumsy

The waterfront's reform was controversial.

revised

The reform of the waterfront was controversial.

example 2

clumsy

The insurance would not cover the figurine's cost.

revised

The insurance would not cover the cost of the figurine.

NUMERALS IN FORMAL WRITING

Numerals with four or more digits were traditionally written with commas, but this is no longer the case in Australian usage; instead, spaces are used when a numeral has more than four digits.

traditional	current
3,857	3857
14,341	14 341
527,912	527 912
1,392,515	1 392 515

Do not begin a sentence with a numeral.

incorrect

35 students completed the evaluation form.

correct

Thirty-five students completed the evaluation form.

Note that hyphens are used to connect numbers consisting of two words up to ninety-nine.

If the number is relatively small, use words. If the number is relatively lengthy in words, recast the sentence and use numerals.

wordy

Four thousand, three hundred and seventy-eight tonnes of grapes were harvested.

revised

The harvest yielded 4378 tonnes of grapes.

Commas are used when numerals are written as words. Note the placement of commas in the following.

Eight hundred and fifty thousand, three hundred and sixty-four (850 364)

Fifteen thousand, eight hundred and ninety-seven (15 897)

Seven thousand, two hundred and ten (7210)

Use numerals for numbers that are followed by a unit of measurement.

The animal was 5.3 metres long and weighed 480 kilograms.

Where numbers seldom occur, use words for both the number and the measurement.

The crisis was over within twelve hours.

Chapter 12: Word use and word choice

In this chapter, you will learn about words that are often confused, and you will learn how to avoid over-used expressions, cliché, jargon and tautology.

EASILY CONFUSED WORDS

Formal academic writing requires accuracy in word use and concise expression. Students' written assignments sometimes reveal that the writers are confused by words that sound or look alike. Reliance on a spell-checker cannot help if the meaning of a word is not understood. You should consult a dictionary whenever doubt arises about the precise meaning and use of a word.

The dictionary definition of a word is the commonly accepted meaning of that word and is called the **denotation**. Words also have personal or specialised significances, called **connotations**. According to the *Macquarie Dictionary*, the word 'rose', for instance, denotes 'any of the wild or cultivated, usually prickly-stemmed, showy-flowered shrubs constituting the genus *Rosa*, having in the wild state a corolla of five roundish petals'. Different people may think of other associations when they read or hear the word 'rose'. The word may suggest the name of a particular friend, relation, or experience.

When you meet unknown words in the course of academic research, you should make the effort to look up their precise meanings, and make a note for future reference. A personal glossary of new words, and of words that may be easily confused, can help you to avoid problems when you next encounter difficulties with meanings or correct spellings. Many words that sound alike in conversational use may cause confusion, and we have listed some of the most commonly confused words in the glossary that follows.

acronym (noun) a word formed from the initial letters of the parts of a compound noun

The word 'radar' stands for 'radio detection and ranging'.

UNESCO is the acronym for the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation.

anachronism (noun) some thing or person chronologically out of place

Numerous Renaissance paintings depict biblical figures anachronistically dressed in clothes of the period in which the pictures were painted.

affect (verb) to influence, to be disposed towards; to pretend

They wondered how the news of war would affect their friends.

She affected to be surprised at his answer.

(noun) a mental disposition, a tendency towards (*specialised psychological term*)

For every man with his affects is born. (*Shakespeare*)

effect (noun) a result

The effect of the thunderclap was to make the musicians jump.

(verb)	to bring about a result The company's sales pitch did not effect a purchase.
aggravate (verb)	to make heavy or make worse He aggravated the injury to his leg by insisting on cycling in the Tour de France
irritate (verb)	to cause impatience or anger; to annoy or exasperate The audience's rude behaviour irritated the actors.
allusion (noun)	an indirect or implied reference Faulkner's novel <i>Absalom, Absalom!</i> contains many allusions to the Old Testament story of David and Absalom.
illusion (noun)	a false conception of an idea; a deceptive appearance. The Magic Mirror Maze creates optical illusions
alright	'Alright' is not acceptable in formal writing. It is a slangy form of 'all right'.
all right (adjective)	everything in order, all in harmony Josephine's answers to the quiz were all right.
allot (verb)	to assign a part or share; to grant; to distribute by lot Students are encouraged to allot sufficient time for the planning of essay assignments.
a lot (noun)	a considerable quantity or number The Rocky River mine produced a lot of alluvial gold.

NOTE: There is no such word as 'alot'.

- all ready** (adjective) fully prepared
The members of the expedition were all ready to depart.
- already** (adverb) by this time
Aboriginal people had already occupied the locality.
- altogether** (adjective) wholly, on the whole, in total, entirely
The stricken tanker was given up altogether.
- all together** (adverb) acting together, acting collectively
The rescue team left all together in the lifeboat.
- anyway** (adverb) in any manner, anyhow (*A slangy term: avoid in formal writing*)
They went to the movies anyway. (*slang*)
- any way** (adverb) in any manner, anyhow (*formal usage*)
They made their way down the mountain any way they could.
- apart** (adverb) to one side, separately, individually
A building was set apart for worship.
- a part** (noun) a portion of the whole, a section, a particle
Stewart Island is a part of New Zealand.
- beside** (preposition) next to, adjacent to
The Folk Museum is beside the Memorial Library.
- besides** (preposition) in addition to, as well as, moreover; other than, except for
Skill in writing requires other knowledge besides grammar.

capital (noun)	<p>accumulated wealth, the trading stock of a company or person; the chief city of a country</p> <p>Her father invested all his capital in wildcat shares.</p> <p>Honiara is the capital of Vanuatu.</p>
(adjective)	<p>relating to the head or the top</p> <p>Capital punishment is still common in many American States.</p>
capitol (noun)	<p>a citadel on a hill, the state-house (American)</p> <p>The Capitol, the seat of U.S. government, is located in Washington, D.C.</p>
cite (verb)	<p>to quote a passage, to call to mind; to mention</p> <p>Formal academic essays require students to cite evidence for claims.</p>
sight (noun)	<p>a thing seen; the ability to see</p> <p>After many days at sea, Magellan's crew caught sight of land.</p>
(verb)	<p>to see or to observe, to look at or to view</p> <p>They sighted the enemy in the valley.</p>
site (noun)	<p>the place or position of an event</p> <p>Canberra was built on the site of a sheep station.</p>
(verb)	<p>to locate, to situate</p> <p>The Puritans sited their New Jerusalem in Massachusetts.</p>
common (adjective)	<p>something shared or belonging to two or more people or members of a group</p> <p>The Bowling Club members and the Hells Angels discovered a common bond in their concern to collect gifts for underprivileged children.</p>

- mutual** (adjective) having similar feelings for each other
A number of the teachers suggested that their pupils might exhibit greater mutual respect if parents also took some interest in cultivating civic concern.
- complement** (noun) something that fulfils or completes
The complement of a battalion is the number of troops required to bring it to full strength.
- (verb) to fulfil or complete
A top hat complemented his outfit for the races.
- compliment** (noun) a formal expression or act of praise
The student received a compliment from the lecturer for her assignment.
- (verb) to praise
The organisers were complimented by the participants at the conference.
- conscience** (noun) The internal recognition of right and wrong in respect to one's actions and motives.
Behavioural scientists believe that conscience is nothing more than social or psychological conditioning.
- conscious** (adjective) aware of one's existence, sensations and cognition; aware of oneself
She was conscious of being appropriately dressed for the occasion.
- continually** (adverb) recurring (in regular rapid succession)
The broadcast was continually interrupted by static.
- continuously** (adverb) flowing without stopping, flowing without interruption
The History cable channel screened documentaries continuously for two years without a commercial break.

credible (adjective)	believable Reports of steam powered automobiles operating in Australia in the late nineteenth century are more credible as a result of documentary and photographic evidence.
creditable (adjective)	worthy, estimable, worthy of praise Otto Lilienthal made creditable efforts to demonstrate the possibility of manned flight by making two thousand glider flights between 1891 and 1896.
credulous (adjective)	gullible, ready to believe something on slight or doubtful evidence (<i>'credulity' is the noun</i>) Credulous to the last, Jim sent away for a do-it-yourself lifesize aircraft carrier kit that was advertised for ten dollars.
discreet (adjective)	judicious, circumspect, tactful, unobtrusive The secretary maintained a discreet silence during the Minister's harangue.
discrete (adjective)	distinct, separate The refugees received discrete packages of food from their rescuers.
disinterested (adjective)	unbiased Magistrates are expected to be disinterested.
uninterested (adjective)	not interested, having no concern The bookshop manager seemed to be wholly uninterested in the customers' suggestions.
emigrate (verb)	to depart from a country in order to settle elsewhere After the Hong Kong Handover, many citizens sought to emigrate to Canada and Australia.
immigrate (verb)	to come into a country as a settler Many Australians have ancestors who immigrated in the nineteenth century.

- eminent** (adjective) distinguished, high in repute
Few eminent politicians in England believed in June 1914 that war with Germany was imminent.
- imminent** (adjective) likely to occur at any moment
Alerted by signs that a volcanic eruption was imminent, the villagers deserted their homes.
- everyday** (adjective) usual
The visit of the Prime Minister was not an everyday event.
- every day** (adjective) each day in succession
The band met for practice every day.
- expatriate** (verb) to banish a person from her or his native country
He apologised at length for proposing to expatriate the rebels.
- (noun) a person living outside his or her native country
In London, Barry Humphries encountered many Australian expatriates.
- ex-patriot** (noun) a person who used to be a patriot (*This word is often mistakenly used in place of 'expatriate'.*)
Following the government's handling of the crisis, many people declared they were now ex-patriots.
- foreword** (noun) something said before other matters; the preface of a book
The author's foreword outlines the circumstances of the book's origin.

forward (verb)	to send on; to assist to advance Gerard asked the bookshop to forward the parcel by express post.
(adverb)	towards; towards the future The bowler sprang forward for the catch.
(adjective)	near; at; closer The cavalry proceeded to a forward position.
imply (verb)	to hint The Chairman implied that the cost of insurance premiums would be increased.
infer (verb)	to draw a conclusion Holmes inferred from the evidence that the murderer was a harpooner recently returned from a voyage.
its (pronoun)	the possessive form if it
it's	a contraction of it is (<i>Avoid this and all other contractions in formal writing.</i>)
lay (verb)	to wager; to set down or apply; to impose a burden <i>Note: the word is also used as the past tense of the verb 'to lie'.</i> They decided to lay no bets on the outcome. The Council decided to lay the matter to rest by a vote. The wounded soldiers lay where they fell. He lay on the couch and read the news.
(noun)	a song, a short lyric (Old French word: 'lai')

(adjective)	belonging to 'the people' as distinct from the clergy; a non-professional The bishop did not consult the lay members of the congregation.
lie (verb)	to recline; to become prostrate; to remain in one's bed On hearing the news, he continued to lie in bed.
(noun)	an untruth; the appearance of the terrain The answer was an outright lie. They observed the lie of the land from a high promontory.
loose (adjective)	not tight, not securely attached, lacking in precision A radio bulletin announced that a tiger had escaped from a loose cage and was prowling the northern suburbs.
(verb)	to untighten, to release Several captives loosed their handcuffs and escaped.
lose (verb)	to misplace, to miss some possession, to suffer defeat (in a game or contest) Some doctors were sceptical when a team of scientists reported that alcohol could assist people to lose weight.
may (verb)	generally used as an auxiliary verb to express permission, power, or future possibility He told her, 'You may be right'.

might (noun)	power or efficacy Vegans maintain that might does not make right, and that superiority stems from acting according to fairness and compassion towards all living creatures.
might (auxiliary verb)	expresses possibility (<i>In indirect speech, use of 'might' is preferable to 'may'.</i>) The subject of this novel is exactly what we might expect from this writer. The conductor told the orchestra that he might consider another offer.
maybe (adverb)	a possibility (<i>Avoid this slangy expression of noncommittal possibility in formal writing unless quoting.</i>) 'Maybe we can get together sometime', she said. (<i>slang</i>)
may be (adverb)	what could occur; what could happen It may be possible to find a scholarship for that student.
passed (verb)	moved ahead The Bill passed through the Lower House.
past (noun)	beyond in time The past is another country.
(adjective)	belonging to earlier times, expressing past action The team was resting on its past successes.
(preposition)	further on, by They went past the library and noticed that it was shut.
practice (noun)	a repeated action; a custom; a profession; a habit of training; an exercise Writing is a skill that requires constant practice.

- practise** (verb) to perform an action in the usual way; to do repeated exercises in the pursuit of skill
He practised the piano every day.
- principal** (adjective) most important
Athens was the principal city of the Confederation.
- (noun) the head of a school or organisation; a sum of money
The principal of the college was absent from the party.
They invested the principal at five per cent interest.
- principle** (noun) a fundamental assumption forming the basis of a chain of reasoning; a general law or rule as a guide to action; the earliest parts of a subject of study
Directional compasses vary in size and function, but their principle remains the same.
- right** (noun) the standard of permitted action; that which is correct
They had the right to a fair trial.
- (adjective) straight, disposed to do what is just, the right-hand side
The bass player stood to the right of the band.
- right** (adverb) in a direct course
The car spun out of control and headed right for the signpost.
- (verb) to straighten
The crew made every effort to right the vessel.
- rite** (noun) formal procedure in a religious observance; a formal custom or habit
Unlike the civil rite of marriage, the religious rite of marriage is based on a spiritual union of couples according the tenets of the couple's faith.

stationary (adjective)	having a fixed station or place; remaining in one position The traffic was stationary at the red light.
stationery (noun)	writing materials The newsagency has a range of ink and other stationery.
than (conjunction)	expresses comparison (with a comparative adjective) He feared the Rottweiler more than the Doberman.
(adjective)	suggestive of otherness She took nothing other than her suitcase.
then (adverb)	at that time; at the time determined (<i>by a relative clause</i>); in that case; at the time that; the time referred to The people were then in revolt. She did not know Spanish, but then she did not read the book in Spanish.
then (adjective)	at the time that The then ruler was Catherine II, known as Catherine the Great.
(noun)	at the time referred to By then, the war was over.
their (pronoun)	belonging to or pertaining to them They told us about their country.
there (adverb)	to or at or in the place indicated They saw him standing there.
(noun)	that place They left there last night.

to (preposition)	in the direction of; on, against He was wet to the skin. She met her father on his way to the Court House.
(adverb)	She pulled the door to.
too (adjective)	more than enough They received too much attention.
(adverb)	excessively He was driving too fast.
two (numeral)	the number after one
vicious (adjective)	depraved; immoral; bad-tempered; subject to a defect; diseased The door-to-door evangelist was attacked by a vicious dog.
viscous (adjective)	glutinous A viscous fluid oozed from the cut flower.
weather (noun)	the condition of the atmosphere The weather in autumn is generally mild.
whether (conjunction)	in either case; used with 'or', 'whether' expresses doubt between alternatives They could not decide whether to go or to remain.
who's	casual form of 'who is'. (<i>Avoid using this contraction in formal writing unless directly quoting.</i>)
whose (pronoun)	possessive pronoun from 'who' She asked whose book it was.

OVER-USED EXPRESSIONS

Where possible, avoid what George Orwell called ‘prefabricated’ expressions. These include over-wordy phrases. There may be some point to wordiness in colloquial situations, where a roundabout way of stating a view can provide time for the speaker to tease out an idea or recollect other information. At times, though, wordy speech can indicate that the speaker has little to contribute to a discussion. Wordy expression can also sound pretentious. An authoritative tone is not guaranteed by use of ornate or obscure words and long, complicated sentences. A plain style is best for formal academic writing.

In formal writing, it is not necessary to state ‘In my opinion ...’ or ‘It is my opinion that ...’ Your reader (usually your teacher) will assume that what you are offering is your considered view of a topic under discussion. It is best to avoid use of ‘I’, ‘we’, ‘you’ or ‘one’ in formal assignments.

Concise expressions can be substituted for all of the following expressions and many others like them.

Wordy or worn out

at the end of the day
 at the end of the road
 at this moment in time
 at this point in time
 due to the fact that
 for the purpose of
 have the ability to
 in the event that
 in the neighbourhood of
 it is conceivable that
 it is possible that there could be
 last but not least
 made an effort
 modern people of today
 slowly but surely

Concise

eventually (*or* finally)
 finally
 now
 now
 because
 for
 can
 in case (*or* when)
 about (*or* near)
 possibly (*or* perhaps)
 possibly (*or* perhaps)
 last
 tried
 people
 slowly

The following words are old-fashioned and can sound pretentious.

amongst, whilst, wherewithal

Cliché

Some of the ‘prefabricated’ expressions listed above resemble clichés. Unlike those wordy and outworn phrases, clichés are words that may have had some original sparkle to them, but which are now tiresome. Some clichés have a proverbial air about them and were perhaps originally based on long observation of events. Others are buzzwords that have replaced the effort to explain a situation or relationship in language that is fresh. A cliché is a lazy way out of thinking for oneself. Here are some clichéd expressions that can be omitted from formal writing assignments.

above and beyond
all things being equal
at the end of the day
beauty is in the eye of the beholder
beauty is only skin deep
came to grief
day in, day out
emotional roller coaster ride
far reaching implications
high on the agenda
jumped on the bandwagon
obvious to anyone who thinks
obvious if you think about it
no pain, no gain
on a level playing field
past its use-by date
seized the bull by the horns
winning combination
with the benefit of hindsight
you get what you pay for
in today’s society

Jargon

Jargon is speech or writing that employs a preponderance of words associated with a particular group or organisation. Do not assume that general readers understand the specialised language of a professional group (economists, scientists, town planners, engineers, or others) about whom you are writing. As a rule, explain specialist terms that you feel obliged to use. Note that a deal of jargon is often used to hide lack of knowledge, absence of thought and absence of evidence for claims. Much contemporary jargon rapidly becomes dated. Here are some examples of jargon.

client base
client end
cost effective
given a mandate
in the long haul
interface
orientated towards
parameter(s)
upgrading infrastructure
user friendly
user-pays
value-added
worst case scenario

Tautology

Avoid redundant words. Keep your expressions concise. Here are some negative examples.

added additions
advance forward
blue in colour
a free gift
a dead corpse
downstairs basement
downward reduction
everyday frequent occurrences
few in number
a footnote at the bottom of the page
former antecedents
full satisfaction
future potential
future prospects
handled pressure under stress
illegal crime
increase upwards
large in size
look back in retrospect
many in number
modern people of today
old antiques
a paid professional
past history
perfectly utopian
a personal friend
pregnant mothers-to-be
reduce down
reverse back

round in shape
 small in size
 a smile on the face
 a temporary makeshift
 true facts
 two twins
 upstairs attic
 a vacant gap
 a vendetta of revenge
 verbal dialogue

CONTRACTED WORDS THAT SHOULD NOT APPEAR IN FORMAL WRITING

Contractions (abbreviated forms of words) should be avoided in formal academic writing. They lend a chatty or intimate tone to writing where dispassionate consideration of a topic is required. Spelling errors can also be reduced by the practice of writing out words in full.

<i>for</i>	they're	<i>write</i>	they are
<i>for</i>	who's	<i>write</i>	who is
<i>for</i>	it's	<i>write</i>	it is
<i>for</i>	don't	<i>write</i>	do not
<i>for</i>	can't	<i>write</i>	can not or cannot
<i>for</i>	couldn't	<i>write</i>	could not
<i>for</i>	wouldn't	<i>write</i>	would not
<i>for</i>	shouldn't	<i>write</i>	should not
<i>for</i>	mightn't	<i>write</i>	might not
<i>for</i>	isn't	<i>write</i>	is not

Words that cause problems

The following words and phrases set up awkward sentences.

avoid	
like	when 'as' or 'such as' is meant
the reason is because	when 'because' will do
in regards to	when 'with regard to' is meant
kind of	when the sense is clear when 'kind of' is removed
on account of	when 'because' is meant
plus	when 'in addition' or 'furthermore' is meant
prior to	when 'before' is meant
pros and cons	when 'arguments for and against' is meant
sort of	when the sense is clear when 'sort of' is removed

You should also avoid using nouns with 'wise' tacked onto the end: 'entertainment-wise', 'movie-wise', 'food-wise' and so on. ('Appearance-wise, it was an ugly sight'. *A better sentence is* 'It was ugly.')

INTENSIFIERS THAT SHOULD BE SPARINGLY USED

Some words that are frequently employed to add intensity to verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs are overused. In many cases, they detract rather than add to the impression of precision that you are attempting to create. When you proofread your writing, consider whether you can substitute more interesting adjectives for expressions that include the following. (Sometimes there is no need to add any intensifier.)

absolutely, actually, awfully, completely, definitely,
especially, incredibly, mostly, particularly, quite, really,
totally, very

Aim for the most accurate and concise expression of an idea, or include an apt and memorable quotation.

vague sentence

Hokusai was very interested in the possibilities of painting.

better sentence

Hokusai was obsessed with the possibilities of painting.

even better sentence

Hokusai described himself as an ‘old man crazy about painting’.

Superlative Adjectives and Adverbs

Some adjectives and adverbs are absolutes. They cannot be modified by words such as ‘more’, ‘less’ or ‘very’.

absolute	infinite
complete	major
dead	minor
entire	original
equal	perfect
excellent	sufficient
false	unanimous
fatal	uniform
final	universal
ideal	unique
impossible	

In conversational use, illogical modifications sometimes occur (‘most excellent’, ‘very dead’, ‘fairly unique’), but such expressions should be avoided in formal written English.

If you wish to indicate nearness to an absolute condition, use expressions that indicate proximity: ‘almost perfect’, ‘approaching excellence’ or ‘nearly fatal’.



EXTRA

DIFFER FROM OR DIFFER TO? DIFFERENT FROM OR DIFFERENT THAN?

To 'differ from' is to be unlike.

The Indian elephant differs from the African elephant in several respects.

To 'differ with' is to disagree with.

Zwingli differed with Luther over interpretation of the Lord's Supper and predestination.

How to be different

In formal writing, prefer the expression 'different from'.

The versions of Poe's tales edited by Floyd Stovall are significantly different from those published by Rufus Wilmot Griswold soon after Poe's death.

The expression 'different than' is acceptable only when a more clumsy expression would otherwise result.

The garden paths radiate from the fountain in a different way than formerly.

(Compare the wordier sentence: 'The garden paths radiate from the fountain in a way that differs from the former manner'.)



EXERCISE 1

Choose the correct word from those shown in brackets in each of the following sentences.

1. We (compare / contrast) similarities and (compare / contrast) differences.
2. Local journalists interviewed the (emigrants / immigrants) on their arrival in Perth.

3. They thought the entrée was tastier (then / than) the main course.
4. When complaining to the manager, the customer (implied / inferred) that the wine was unsatisfactory.
5. One would have to be very (credible / credulous) to believe that the Sydney Harbour Bridge is the first prize in a lottery.
6. The length of the required article was not made (implicit / explicit) in the editor's letter, which was, in general, vague on other matters as well.
7. The two candidates had a (common / mutual) respect for each other.
8. Marcus tried hard not to (elude / allude) to the accident that Delores had suffered.
9. The Mona Lisa dressed in sunglasses is an (acronym / anachronism).
10. She was badly (effected / affected) by her parents' sudden decision to send her to a remote boarding school.

EXERCISE 2

Choose the correct word from those shown in brackets in each of the following sentences.



1. The problem (lays / lies) with people's hidden assumptions.
2. The availability of family leave (affects / effects) men as well as women.
3. The long-term unemployed (maybe / may be) subject to high rates of stress-induced health problems.
4. Until about 1730, farming (practices / practises) in England had changed little from those in the Middle Ages.
5. The protestors, who were chanting slogans and waving placards, (aggravated / irritated) the Minister.
6. The opinion poll revealed that most students were (disinterested / uninterested) in Asian politics.
7. The ending of the film was barely (credulous / credible).
8. Most of the audience did not recognise the senator's (allusions / illusions) to Cicero.

9. The new regulations are designed to (complement / compliment) those that currently apply.
10. His objection to the motion was (altogether / all together) frivolous.



EXERCISE 3

Choose the correct word from those shown in brackets in each of the following sentences.

1. The graduation speech was delivered by an (imminent / eminent) scientist.
2. They swam twenty laps of the pool; (than / then), they went to the pizza parlour.
3. The visitors (past / passed) several kangaroos on the trip to Adelaide.
4. The class was (suppose / supposed) to have read the textbook before the seminar.
5. The company appointed an agent (who's / whose) reliability had been recommended to them.
6. Theists believe that a (conscious / conscience) is the voice of God.
7. Radar has become a tool of weather forecasting ever since (it's / its) first meteorological application.
8. Because the Mongols lived in poorly-ventilated tents, had little water supply and rarely (use / used) to wash their clothes and bodies, they were susceptible to epidemic diseases.
9. It is hard to (loose / lose) what one never possessed.
10. When the players were (already / all ready), they left for the station, only to find that the train had (all ready / already) departed.

Chapter 13: Using direct and indirect quotations

In this chapter, you will learn about citing the sources of information. You will learn how and when to use a quotation (direct and indirect), about the difference between a paraphrase and a summary, and about the list of References or the Bibliography.

In formal writing, you will often use information from a number of different sources. This information will be incorporated into your own writing as a direct quotation or as an indirect quotation. The method of citation used in this chapter is the author-date system recommended in the *Style manual for authors, editors and printers*, 6th edition. While you will always need to cite your sources and provide a list of references, how you do this will depend on the requirements of the discipline or the preferred conventions of the intended audience. Make sure that you check the conventions demanded by your discipline.

DIRECT QUOTATION

Direct quotation should be kept to a minimum in formal writing. Overuse gives the impression that your essay is merely a collection of quotations linked by the occasional joining word or transitional phrase. You should also remember that direct quotations are not usually included in the word count, so you still have to write the number of words required.

A direct quotation must be exactly the same as the original. This means that if the quotation uses American spelling, you must use American spelling. You also need to take care that you do not misrepresent what the author is trying to communicate.

When you use a direct quotation, the quotation must be integrated in a grammatically accurate manner, and it must be properly introduced and commented on. Do not simply insert a quotation into the text. A quotation should be used to support or illustrate your own arguments, and you must explain why you find the quotation significant or interesting. It should not simply be ‘tipped in’ as if its meaning and significance were self-evident.

example

‘tipped in’ quotation

Capital punishment should not be reintroduced in Australia because there is always the possibility that an innocent person will be executed. ‘In England, Timothy Evans, hanged in 1950, was pardoned in 1966 when it was discovered another man, John Christie, had in fact committed the crime’ (Victory 1994).

revised

Capital punishment should not be reintroduced in Australia because there is always the possibility that an innocent person will be executed. This has occurred in other countries. An English example, cited by Victory (1994), is that of Timothy Evans who, ‘hanged in 1950, was pardoned in 1966 when it was discovered another man, John Christie, had in fact committed the crime’.

In the revised version, it is clear that the quotation is being used to support the claim that ‘there is always the possibility that an innocent person will be executed’. You should also note that the author’s name is used to introduce the quotation. You should follow this practice because it will ensure that the quotation is properly introduced and not ‘tipped’ into the essay. If you are required to give page numbers, you should check the conventions used by your discipline.

Short direct quotation

If the direct quotation is less than 30 words or not more than three lines (which is usually the case), use single quotation marks, and include the quotation in the text. In some cases, you will need to use a punctuation mark immediately before the direct quotation. If what appears before the quotation is an independent clause, use a colon. If what appears before the quotation is not an independent clause, you may not need any punctuation, or you may need to use a comma.

example

Andrews (1999) observes that HECS has had ‘little, if any, effect on the social composition of higher education students’.

In this example, what appears before the quotation is not an independent clause, and because there is no break in the sentence, a comma is not required. You should also note the use of the present tense ‘observes’ and that the full stop appears after the final quotation mark.

Remember that the quotation must not break the flow of the sentence, that it must exactly reproduce the original, and that you must always acknowledge the source of the quotation.

If a quotation already includes quotation marks, use double quotation marks for the single quotation marks and single quotation marks around the complete quotation.

example

original

By the late 1970s, the ‘migrant presence’ had begun to spread beyond demographic and cultural issues into issues of equal access to social resources. (Greig, Lewins & White 2003)

as a direct quotation

Greig, Lewins and White (2003) note that ‘By the late 1970s, the “migrant presence” had begun to spread beyond demographic and cultural issues into issues of equal access to social resources’.

Note that the upper-case letter ‘B’ at the beginning of the quotation has been retained. This is because the quotation must be exactly the same as the original.

Longer direct quotation

Longer direct quotation should be used even less frequently than short direct quotation. You should only use a longer direct quotation when it is impossible to summarise the original words, or if you want to take particular issue with the claim put by the author.

A longer direct quotation is a quotation of more than 30 words or more than three lines. Such a quotation must be set off from the text, it must be indented, and it must be single-spaced. This is called a block quotation. Never end a paragraph with a block quotation. You must always comment on the quotation before you begin the next paragraph.

example

Day (2001) observes that

Chifley's failure to win the seat of Macquarie at the 1925 federal election did not leave him downhearted. After all, he had failed even to win preselection at two previous state elections. Now, at least he had made a decent showing as an election candidate.

Indirect quotation

Indirect quotation is either a paraphrase or a summary. Of the two, the most frequently used form of indirect quotation is the summary. When you use an indirect quotation, the quotation must be integrated in a grammatically accurate manner, and the quotation must be properly introduced and commented on. You must also cite the source of the quotation. An indirect quotation does not require quotation marks.

example

Moreton-Robinson (2002) argues that liberal feminism is incapable of acknowledging that white women are privileged because it focuses on gender oppression and sexual difference, and ignores race.

This example is a summary of a paragraph.

Paraphrasing

The aim of a paraphrase is to restate the original in your own words. This means that the vocabulary and the sentence structure used in the paraphrase must differ significantly from that used in the original. For this reason, paraphrasing requires a good vocabulary and a good understanding of sentence structure. If the vocabulary and the sentence structure of your paraphrase closely resemble that of the original, you will leave yourself open to a charge of plagiarism. While a paraphrase may be just as long as the original, it should be clearer and more easily understood. There is no point in paraphrasing if the paraphrase is more difficult to understand than the original. The source of the material that is paraphrased must be clearly acknowledged in your text.

In many disciplines, paraphrasing is not encouraged. It is better to use a short direct quotation that is supported or rejected through the use of your own examples or arguments.

Summarising

The aim of a summary is to communicate the main idea in as few words as possible. A summary should be significantly shorter than the original. To write a good summary, you need to have a thorough understanding of the original, and you need to be able to identify the main points. You then need to express the essence of what you have read in your own words.

When to cite the source of information

If the information is regarded as common knowledge, you do not need to cite a source.

example 1

Australia has six states and two territories.

This information would be regarded as common knowledge. The source of such a statement need not be cited.

example 2

By 1998, twenty-five per cent of male workers in Australia were working part-time.

This information is **not** common knowledge. The source of such a statement must be cited.

revised

By 1998, approximately twenty-five per cent of male workers in Australia were working part-time (Greig, Lewins & White 2003).

Note that the full stop appears after the citation.

Useful words for introducing quotations

A variety of words may be used to introduce a quotation. These words have different shades of meaning. Some have positive or negative connotations while others are quite neutral. For most formal writing, it is best to choose neutral words. When you are introducing a quotation, choose carefully from the following list.

acknowledges	elaborates	recognises
adds	implies	refutes
admits	infers	relates
argues	informs	remarks
asserts	maintains	requests
assures	mentions	responds
claims	notes	reveals
comments	observes	states
concedes	proves	suggests
concludes	questions	thinks
declares	quotes	urges
denies	reasons	warns

Note that the simple present tense is most frequently used when introducing quotations.

References or Bibliography?

For most formal essays, a list of references or a bibliography is required. This consists of a list of all the sources you have cited in your essay, and it is always on a separate page. Whether it is headed 'References' or 'Bibliography' will depend on the method of citation used, but it is always arranged alphabetically according to author surname, and every second and subsequent line of an entry is indented. The order of any other information such as the year of publication, the title, the name of the publisher and the place of publication will differ according to the method of citation used. The requirements for citing materials other than books will also vary from method to method. This list is presented according to the author-date system recommended in the *Style manual for authors, editors and printers*, 6th edition.

References

- Andrews, L 1999, *Does HECS deter?: factors affecting university participation by low SES groups*, Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs.
- Day, D 2001, *Chifley*, Harper Collins, Sydney.
- Greig, A, Lewins, F & White, K 2003, *Inequality in Australia*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Moreton-Robinson, A 2002, *Talkin' up to the white woman: indigenous women and feminism*, University of Queensland Press, St. Lucia.
- Victory, M 1994, *End of the line: capital punishment in Australia*, CIS, Carlton.



Chapter 14: Paragraph Structure 1

In this chapter, you will learn about paragraphs including paragraph structure, format and length. You will learn about the topic sentence and the controlling idea, and how a paragraph is developed for unity, coherence, logic and relevance. You will also learn about a number of different types of paragraphs including narration, description, explanation (process), classification and division, definition, and comparison and contrast.

This chapter and the next focus on the ways in which sentences are combined in order to present the product of research and logical thinking in formal academic writing. Beginning with the paragraph, the basic structural unit of an academic essay, the ways in which information can be logically ordered to present research findings through narration, description and other analytical methods are explored.

DEFINITION OF A PARAGRAPH

The word ‘paragraph’ is Greek in origin. (The word ‘para’ means ‘by the side’ and ‘graphos’ means ‘written’, from the verb graphein, ‘to write’.) The original paragraphos was a single horizontal stroke written below the beginning of a line to indicate where a break in sense occurred in the writing. In recent centuries, the editorial or proofreader’s symbol for paragraph is ¶. This symbol indicates where a new paragraph commences.

A paragraph is a group of sentences that develops a topic. The paragraph may be complete in itself, or it may be part of a longer piece of writing. The first line of a paragraph is indented from the margin of the text, so as to clearly indicate where the paragraph begins. The standard way of indenting is to set off the first line by one tab-space (about one centimetre). Indenting helps writers organise paragraphs more effectively and, by showing the boundaries between paragraphs, it shows consideration for readers. The indented lines should not indicate random breaks.

A formal paragraph requires a topic sentence and a number of logically connected sentences that offer supporting ideas. Each sentence should be related to the topic. A concluding sentence either summarises what has been introduced in the topic sentence, or it logically leads to the beginning of the next paragraph.

How long should a paragraph be?

There are no rules governing the length of a paragraph. Occasionally, a paragraph consists of a single sentence or less; for example, in magazine articles and in fiction writing, a writer may set apart a single sentence or word placed for the purpose of dramatic emphasis. This is not the practice in formal academic writing.

In formal writing, a paragraph is a group of sentences that develops a single idea, so it makes sense to provide enough information to establish the idea and flesh it out. A very brief paragraph might provide relief for the reader if it occurs in the context of several long paragraphs. A very long paragraph may leave the reader confused as to the topic of the paragraph, or it may deter the reader from continuing to engage with the work. Some writers on the subject suggest that a paragraph should contain a minimum of five sentences and a maximum of ten. A number between four and ten is a good compromise.

The basic ingredients of a paragraph

There is more to a paragraph than the fact that the beginning is indented or that it is separated from what comes before and after. A paragraph is an integrated unit with its own internal logic. The basic ingredients of a paragraph are a **topic sentence**, a number of **logically connected sentences that offer supporting ideas**, and a **concluding sentence**.

(Note that in a piece of writing consisting of several paragraphs, it is usual to provide words or phrases that signal transitions from one paragraph to the next. Transitional expressions are discussed later in this chapter.)

The topic sentence and the controlling idea

The word ‘topic’ comes from the Greek word *topikos*, which means ‘pertaining to place’. A topic is a specific area marked out for discussion. The topic sentence gives the reader a clear indication of what the paragraph will be about. The topic sentence is the most general sentence of the paragraph, and it provides focus for the entire passage. The other sentences are added to explain, qualify, illustrate or otherwise support the point that is made in the topic sentence. In a simple paragraph, the topic sentence is usually (but not always) the first sentence. Readers should be able to predict the content of the paragraph from the topic sentence.

The topic sentence establishes the subject of the paragraph, and it sets the tone for what will follow. It states the subject, and it contains a controlling idea (the ‘thesis’) that indicates the writer’s attitude to the subject. As an example, in the topic sentence ‘Racial prejudice affects access to jobs’, the **topic** is ‘racial prejudice’ and the **controlling idea** is ‘access to jobs’. In the following paragraph about the early twentieth-century Australian magazine *The Home* and its major illustrator, Thea Proctor, the topic (‘representations of the modern woman’) and the controlling idea (a revolution in women’s awareness) are apparent in the first sentence.

Representations of the modern woman in *The Home* were a small part of a revolution that involved the 1920s woman in becoming aware that the difference in women’s appearance signalled more momentous changes. Proctor’s drawings elevated the fashion plate to an affirmation of these new standards. In identifying with the new woman, the woman reader discovered new and disturbing feelings about herself; she learnt a structure of female discourse which challenged the traditional image of domestic, reproductive femininity, the previous ‘ideal’ to which women had aspired (Spivak, 172). It is obvious that a number of major social and economic shifts contributed towards women re-evaluating their ‘proper’ gender roles. The winning of suffrage and the job opportunities available

in World War One were certainly factors that helped to make psychical changes in women's consciousness, yet we should not discount the power of the media image to effect change.

Mary Mackay

In Mackay's paragraph, each ensuing sentence is related to the initial topic sentence, and every sentence is related to the one that follows it. This interrelatedness gives the paragraph its coherence. In the following sentence, the topic is 'daylight saving' and the controlling idea is 'an effective way to reduce electricity consumption'.

Daylight saving should be extended to all areas because it is an effective way to reduce electricity consumption.

The examples demonstrate that a good topic sentence should have a clearly stated topic and a controlling idea that is not too vague or general. A vague topic sentence makes for a paragraph that lacks interest or originality. Suppose the topic set for an assignment is oil consumption, and a writer decides to begin with the following sentence.

Oil is an everyday commodity.

The sentence is weak. It offers a vague opinion that would be difficult to develop into an interesting or logical paragraph. A more suitable sentence might be this.

The price of oil has risen dramatically in the last two years.

Here, the topic is clearly 'the price of oil', and the controlling idea is 'has risen dramatically in the last two years'. The topic sentence can be developed into a paragraph that provides evidence for the statement and some reasons for the rise in price. In this case, the most convincing evidence could be provided by the inclusion of statistics. As well as identifying the topic of the paragraph, the topic sentence also suggests something of the structure and content of the paragraph.

Further examples of topic sentences and controlling ideas

In each of the following examples, the topic and the controlling idea cannot be found simply by dividing the sentence in two. The controlling idea cannot always be expressed in words identical to those used in the sentence.

example 1

Embezzlement of export proceeds may now be the most lucrative ‘pillar’ of the General’s system.

Here, the **topic** is ‘embezzlement of export proceeds’ and the **controlling idea** is ‘the General’s system’.

example 2

Keats’s early poetry lacks the tension of his later verse.

Here, the **topic** is ‘tension’, and the **controlling idea** is ‘Keats’s early poetry’.

example 3

The legal age for the consumption of alcohol should be raised to twenty-five.

Here, the **topic** is ‘the legal age for the consumption of alcohol’, and the **controlling idea** is ‘should be raised to twenty five’.

example 4

Despite the fact that many people may object, daylight saving should be extended to all areas because it is an effective way to reduce electricity consumption.

Here, the **topic** is ‘daylight saving’, and the **controlling idea** is ‘the consumption of electricity’.

example 5

Resolving conflict is nothing new for Somali elders who are experienced professional negotiators.

Here, the **topic** is ‘Somali elders’, and the **controlling idea** is ‘experienced professional negotiators’.

Sometimes the topic sentence comes at the end of a paragraph, as in the following example.

When people turn on the television, they are confronted by advertising text. Food packages and wrappers are covered with information. Road signs warn of hazards and suggest recommended speeds. People communicate by letters, emails, faxes and text messages. Books, magazines, journals, compact disc covers, videocassette and DVD slicks provide information that enhances study and leisure activities. Instruction manuals provide advice on how to fix problems and how to create a better environment. These examples suggest that in the twenty-first century, reading is not just important but crucial.

UNE student essay

Usually, however, the topic sentence is placed first, or very early in a paragraph. The final sentence in a paragraph should generally complete what has been indicated in the topic sentence. The final sentence in a paragraph in a longer essay or article will generally foreshadow further development of the topic in the paragraph that follows.

Is there an alternative to including a topic sentence and a controlling idea?

Sometimes you may read a paragraph that appears to have no clear topic sentence containing a controlling idea. In such cases, the idea that unifies the sentences is conveyed through language that offers a visual image, through listing of a series of events, or through an accumulation of detail that builds an impression of unified focus. Such paragraphs generally follow from previous ones that contain clear topic sentences and controlling ideas. **In general, you should make your topic and its controlling idea clear at the outset in every paragraph.**

DEVELOPING PARAGRAPHS FOR UNITY, COHERENCE, LOGIC AND RELEVANCE

The paragraphs used as examples in this chapter so far display unity of organisation. In each case, the topic sentence announces the subject of the entire paragraph, the other sentences are relevant to the subject, and they develop it in obvious ways. In each case, too, the paragraph length is important. Very short paragraphs offer readers little by way of evidence of your reasoning process, and you may sometimes need to expand a brief paragraph (of three or less sentences) in order to make the relationship between the topic and the controlling idea clear. Long paragraphs, by contrast, risk abandoning the topic sentence or the controlling idea, or both. It is advisable to scrutinise long paragraphs (page-length paragraphs, for instance) to see if the sentences are too wordy, or if the controlling idea has been lost along the way. In such a case, a new paragraph should be started where the sentences diverge from the controlling idea. It is crucial that your ideas appear in sentences expressed in clear language, and that the sentences in a paragraph focus on a consistent approach to a main idea.

In every paragraph, the supporting sentences must be relevant to the topic. Sentences that do not support the topic sentence should be deleted or moved somewhere else. Alternatively, the topic sentence can be revised so that all material in the paragraph is relevant to the revised topic. In every case, too, the supporting sentences should provide detailed relevant information that adds point and variety to the topic statement's assertion. A series of generalising and bland statements does not offer readers an interesting experience.

Earlier chapters on sentences have provided examples of logical connections between two independent clauses (compound sentences or coordination) and between an independent clause and a dependent clause (complex sentences or subordination). Punctuation and certain conjunctions make connections between clauses apparent to a reader. In paragraph writing, something of the same practice is followed. Particular words and phrases commonly show the connections between sentences, as well as between parts of sentences. The connecting words in and between sentences are called transitions. Here is an example of a paragraph in which one idea is added to another by using appropriate transitional expressions (shown in **bold** type).

All of Byron's dramas were composed after he left England, **and**, in some ways, it was necessary for him to be absent in order to write them. The political implications of his works did not go unnoticed by censorious readers in England (**and** by the Austrian **and** Papal police in Italy), **and** the theological controversy of at least two of the plays was better handled from abroad. **Furthermore**, residence in Italy gave Byron first-hand material for the background of the Italian plays, **and** involvement in events outside England broadened the perspective of his works. **In addition**, Byron could see England from the point of view of a foreign spectator, **and** could impart to his plays a 'Continental' flavour that was lacking in those of his contemporaries who attempted Italian themes.

Michael Sharkey

This paragraph also indicates other features designed to assist unity and coherence. One of these is repetition of important words: 'Byron' (and the variation 'Byron's'), 'Italy' and 'Italian', and 'plays' (and the variation 'dramas'). This reiteration of key concepts reinforces the orientation of the passage. Another feature that contributes to coherence of focus is the maintenance of consistent verb tenses. Past continuous and past perfect keep the narrative moving through variation in some: 'were composed', 'was necessary', 'did not go', 'was ... handled', 'gave', 'broadened', 'could see', 'could impart', 'was lacking', 'attempted'. In at least one instance, parallel usage of verb tense ('could see ... could impart') within a single sentence also tries to bring the subject of the entire paragraph to a conclusion that still allows development of the idea in an ensuing paragraph.

TRANSITIONS BETWEEN SENTENCES

Transitional words or phrases can show connections between information that has gone before, suggest illustrative examples, or cue readers to what will follow. In the following examples, the transitional expressions are shown in **bold** type, and the nature of the relationship between the sentences (or parts of a single sentence) is shown in parentheses at the end of each sentence.

The appeal of crime fiction is largely based on the genre's strong emphasis on story. **Furthermore**, crime writers appeal to readers' curiosity about phenomena that they are unlikely to encounter themselves. (*addition of one idea to another*)

Although easel-painted portrait painting is often thought of as an early modern phenomenon, this form of portraiture was highly developed in the first three centuries of the Christian era. (*contrast*)

Finally, although the campaign proved catastrophic to many who took part in it, their recollections included many comic incidents. (*time, sequence*)

In the background of the painting, two kangaroos are flying from a troop of hunters. (*space*)

As a result of the delivery of the ultimatum, an emergency cabinet meeting was called. (*cause and effect*)

As these examples indicate, transitional words or expressions often occur at the start of a sentence. Notice that a comma is used to punctuate the statement in which an introductory transitional expression occurs.

Avoid overstating your procedure in paragraph writing. Insertion of too many transitional words in a paragraph can appear awkward or repetitive, or it can suggest that you have little to say. You should also avoid over-stating what you are doing ('First I will ... Next I shall ... Then I shall ...' and so on). Connections between sentences are often clear without such insistence on the procedure. If the context is quite clear, you can omit 'signals' that leave no work for the reader. When revising paragraph drafts, check whether the meaning is clear enough, and whether you have used too many or too few transitions, and whether they are repetitive or can be varied.

In the rest of this chapter, examples are provided of ways in which supporting sentences in a good formal paragraph can put events into perspective by emphasising logical connections. (In the next chapter, it will become clear that conclusions can be drawn from information provided in all such empirical or expository paragraphs.)

SIX LOGICAL WAYS TO CONNECT SENTENCES

Paragraph logic can be emphasised through focus on coherent ways to unify sentences for clarity. In this section, the following methods are explored:

1. Narration using historical recount (chronological order)
2. Description
3. Explanation (Process)
4. Classification and Division
5. Definition
6. Comparison and Contrast.

Sometimes the paragraph will combine these methods of development. The topic sentence in each case will suggest the appropriate choice of method. (In the next chapter you will learn about methods that are more obviously concerned with writing that employs logic for cause and effect analysis, argument and persuasion.)

In the descriptions of paragraph types that follow, boxes show transitional words that can be used to indicate relationships between parts of sentences and to indicate the relationships between sentences in a paragraph.

1. NARRATION PARAGRAPHS USING HISTORICAL RECOUNT (CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER)

In a paragraph using chronological sequence, the writer outlines a sequence of events in order of occurrence. This method is most apparent in historical or fictional narrating of events. Paragraphs that employ this method provide interest if they also give the reader some sense of detail in terms of the physical and cultural setting, through addition of examples or illustration. Narrative writing of this sort also employs interruptions, such as references to earlier events or times. In the following paragraph, the shifts in verb tense from simple past ('began', 'embarked', 'felt') to past continuous ('had seen') and subjunctive ('would not', 'could defy') indicate the order of events.

The Peloponnesian War **began** in 431. Both sides **embarked** on it with some reluctance, but with a conviction, false as it **turned** out, that the war **would not last** long. The Spartans **had seen** Athens **sue** for peace in 445 in the face of a hoplite invasion and **hoped to achieve** the same result again. Pericles, on the other hand, **felt** that if the Athenians **stayed** on the defensive, protected by the city walls and the Long walls, they **could defy** the Spartan hoplites, and Sparta **would soon weary** of a war which **it could not** speedily **bring** to a successful conclusion.

Maurice Kelly

TRANSITION WORDS THAT INDICATE TIME SEQUENCE

after, afterward, after a time, after a while, as, ago, as long as, as soon as, at first, at last, at length, at that time, at the same time, before, concurrently, during, earlier, eventually, finally, first, formerly, immediately, instantly, in the meantime, in the past, last, lately, later, meanwhile, next, now, presently, previously, recently, second, shortly, simultaneously, since, so far, sometimes, soon, subsequently, then, thereafter, until, when, while

In narrative paragraphs, time is indicated also by modifiers (adverbs or adjectives) that establish the sequence of events.

Debates surrounding immigration are not **new**. The subject has caused concern ever since the Australian Colonies were established. Over two hundred years **ago**, British convicts were sent to Australia. In 1849, however, the Anti-Transportation league joined with Victorian colonists to prevent the convict ship ‘Randolph’ from docking in Melbourne. It was clear **at that time** that the Australian Colonies did not want any more convict immigrants. In 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia enacted the White Australia policy to limit Asian ethnic groups from entering the country. **Later**, because of the small population, Australians were told to ‘populate or perish’, but the population was also increased as a result of mass immigration **after** World War Two.

Nicolle Kennedy

The supporting statements in a paragraph that uses narration are generally organised in chronological order, that is, in the order in which the events occurred.

You will rarely, if ever, be requested to write an essay that is entirely made up of recount. If, however, you are asked to do so, the logic of the recount may mean that you do not require a topic sentence in every paragraph following the first (in which you outline your topic and procedure).

2. DESCRIPTION PARAGRAPHS

Description can be used to develop a paragraph. Description increases the reader's sense of an object, person, or event by moving from one aspect of the subject to another. It can move from the general to the specific, or from the specific to the general. Description specifies size, shape, mass, colour, texture, velocity and other features.

TRANSITIONS THAT ADD INFORMATION

additionally, also, and, as well, as well as, besides, equally important, first (and so on), further, furthermore, in addition, not only ... but also, moreover, next, too, usually

TRANSITIONS THAT INTRODUCE EXAMPLES OR ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL

as an illustration, an illustration of this is..., for example, for instance, in particular, including, namely, specifically, such as, to be specific, to illustrate

Observe how the sentences in the following two paragraphs support the topic sentences (in each case, the first) by providing more information about the topic. Transition words (shown in **bold** type) are used sparingly because the co-authors have so clearly illustrated the functions that they wish to relate.

Occasionally, birds use tools to help them forage, but these tools, such as small sticks, are **usually** held by the beak, not the feet. Combinations of foot **and** beak are **also** used to manipulate food. Many parrot species of the world feed by holding the food in one foot **and** manipulating it with the beak and tongue. Raptors hold down the carcass of their captured prey with a foot while they prise off pieces of the meat. These are prime functions of the feet.

Avian feet are **also** designed to suit the surface on which they are used. Swimming birds, such as ducks, have webbed feet. Some species walk on floating leaves **and** have long toes to give them a broader surface area. The feet of perching birds are padded **and** their toes positioned so that they can grip branches. Birds that feed on vertical tree surfaces have feet with long sharp nails for better grip. Some species, such as cockatoos and rainforest pigeons, have so much power in their grip that they can hang upside down suspended by one foot in order to reach the desired food.

*Gisela Kaplan and
Lesley Rogers*

In the following paragraph, the description of a painful condition is emphasised by the accretion of details linked by the functional but often overlooked word ‘and’.

Achilles tendonitis is a common **and** troublesome condition, which can afflict anyone who runs a lot. The covering of the tendon sheath or the tendon itself, or both, become inflamed. The result is pain on running, tenderness **and** slight swelling of **and** around the tendon, **and** stiffness, especially in the morning. The condition may remain mild **and** permit continuing bowling assisted by physiotherapy, a heel lift **and** stretching exercises. It may, however, progress **and** prevent running. Occasionally in older bowlers who are thirty years of age or older, the Achilles tendon may rupture, **and** this necessitates surgery, after which full recovery is still possible.

Ken Fitch

Spatial order is also useful in descriptive paragraphs because the focus of spatial analysis involves situating persons, things, events or places in relation to other phenomena within a frame of reference.

TRANSITION WORDS THAT INDICATE SPACE, TIME OR DIRECTION

above, across, adjacent to, alongside, against, behind, below, beneath, beyond, bottom, close, elsewhere, far from, farther on, here, in, in the background, in the basement, in the distance, in the foreground, in front, near, nearby, next to, on, on the opposite side, on the other side, opposite, over, proximity, rear, size, space, spatial, there, to the north (south, east, west), to the right, to the left, top, under, upstairs

Note the frequency of spatial references in the following passage (including the quoted material).

For the larger, well-established metropolitan papers, the spatial organisation of the workplace, usually a **large** office building by the 1920s, was significant to the work experience and had a symbolic importance as a reflection of the power relations. With the **vertical** arrangement of staff on various floors, journalists used **spatial** metaphors to indicate hierarchy: ‘**above stairs**’ as journalism work, ‘**in the basement**’ for printers, and the shorthand for particular floors standing in for the editorial authority: ‘This directive came from the **sixth floor/upstairs**’. The machines were almost always separated off, usually in the **lower** floors. The new *Sydney Morning Herald* building in Hunter Street, Sydney, during the 1920s located the machinery and giant presses in two floors **in the basement**. Paul Hasluck described the layout of the *West Australian* building during this time:

The office where advertisements were lodged was on the **left-hand side** of the front door, and the accountant’s office on the **right** hand side. **Beyond** them a very slow and very noisy lift served the three floors **above**, and **behind** the lift

in appropriate obscurity were the chief of staff, the sub-editors, the cable-room and most of the reporters. A gangway led from this floor to the printing works in a separate building **at the rear**. The **second** floor was sacred to the managing editor and the **top** floor to the leader writers with some of the more senior members of the literary staff **in proximity** to them.⁴⁷

His description indicated the traditional esteem in which the more senior members of the literary staff were held on this paper which was still run on the English model of journalism.

Paula Hamilton

[Footnote

47. Paul Hasluck, *Mucking About: An Autobiography*, Perth, UWA Press, 1977, 1994, p. 99; 'SMH Writes Australia's History', *Newspaper News*, 1 April 1931, p. 9; and see also Margo Beasley's interviews with Des Robinson 13 June 1990. He was then 88 years old, speaking of the *Argus* building in the 1920s as a 'real Dickensian place'.]

Analogy is sometimes employed in descriptive paragraphs. An analogy is an expanded simile or comparison. Writing that uses analogy involves describing something by comparing it to something else. An example in the text of the Hamilton paragraph is the reference to 'the English model of journalism'; another is in the footnote reference to a 'real Dickensian place'.

3. EXPLANATION (PROCESS) PARAGRAPHS

Explanation (also called process) paragraphs tell readers how a thing works or how a task can be or has been performed. Step-by-step order helps readers to understand the process. Transition words employed include those used in narrative and descriptive paragraphs, together with the following.

TRANSITION WORDS THAT INDICATE METHOD

accompanied by, after, after a time, after a while, and, as, as soon as, at first, at last, at length, at the same time, completed, concurrently, during, end, ending, eventually, fast, finally, first, immediately, instantly, in the meantime, in the first, in the second, past, last, lately, later, meanwhile, next, now, presently, second, simultaneously, since, slow, slowly, so far, sometimes, soon, start, starting, subsequently, then, until, when, while

Observe the references to time and manner in the following paragraphs (transitions are shown in **bold** type). Emphasis on process is also provided by frequent use of present-tense verbs.

When heat is applied to an individual piece of fuel, three phases of combustion can be recognised in a moving flame front. The **first** phase is one of drying and pre-heating accompanied by the **start** of decomposition, but the reaction is not self-sustaining if the source of heat is withdrawn. In the **second** phase, decomposition of the fuel is **completed** and is accompanied by flaming in a self-sustained reaction. In the **third** and **final** phase, **when** the vapours produced during the decomposition phase have been consumed, the residual charcoal burns away **until** only mineral ash is left. Little difficulty is experienced in recognising each of these phases if the rate of combustion is **slow**. When fine fuels are burnt at a **fast** rate, all three may appear to exist **simultaneously**.

RH Luke & AG McArthur

Waves are the chief erosive influence on coasts. Generated by winds in storm areas offshore, waves grow from small irregular ripples to larger *chop*, **then** to more regularly spaced waves known as *sea*. **When** fully developed, and this depends on the strength of the wind that is raising them, the sea waves change to *swells*, which

march in regular procession towards the land. The swells move across the ocean in groups called *trains*. **As** they move into shallow water near the coast, they undergo marked changes in size, speed, and direction. They become higher and closer together, and **when** the depth of water becomes about half the wavelength **as** they reach shallower depths, the fronts of the waves become steeper and steeper **until** they become unstable. **At this time** the forward motion causes the fronts to topple over as crests. All the energy of the wave is focused in the forward-rushing mass of water **as** it explodes on the shore. The forward motion causes the water to rush up the beach as the *swash* of the wave. On a sandy beach the leading edge of the wave will carry a line of sand particles, which marks the uppermost reach of the swash. Both the forward motion and the backwash of the wave can cause erosion.

*Thomas Carefoot,
adapted by Rodney D Simpson*

Note that these paragraphs employ ‘order of operations’ analysis. In the second example, the writer combines an account of process with definitions of each new term.

4. CLASSIFICATION AND DIVISION PARAGRAPHS

Classification paragraphs group objects or events in discrete categories according to consistent principles of organisation. To be useful, a category must include all items that are relevant; it cannot be a partial list. A wattle is a woody plant; the category ‘woody plant’ must include *all* wattles. A flute is a musical wind instrument; the category ‘musical wind instrument’ must include *all* flutes.

Division refers to identification and listing of items in a category according to subgroups. Wattles can be divided into small (less than 1 metre), medium (1-3 metres) and tall (3-6 metres). Flutes can be divided into end-blown (recorder type) or side-blown (transverse type). Note in the following paragraph, how geological strata are classified and divided.

Each of the geological strata in the Sydney region tends to form particular soil types which in turn support specific vegetation regimes. Upwarping of the Sydney basin edges – slightly to the east and considerably to the west, north and south – has allowed the processes of erosion to carry away the younger strata exposing older rocks with altitude. Thus the dominant strata of the Cumberland Plain are the Liverpool sub-group, of which the most common are the Ashfield shales, the lowest strata and oldest rocks of the Wianamatta series. The shales form soils, which at the time of European settlement supported an open woodland with a grassy understorey – possibly kept in that state by Aboriginal burning. This type of country was called ‘forest land’ by the first settlers and was prized for the grazing of stock. It was also the type of country where kangaroos grazed and was a resource-rich area for Aboriginal people. The Ashfield shales were also a source of good brick making clays for the settlers.

Chris Cunningham

5. DEFINITION PARAGRAPHS

Definition is a useful way of clarifying ideas. A definition paragraph assigns a word or concept to a general class and provides additional information in order to distinguish the word or concept from other items in that class. Dictionary definitions of words are arranged in a way that shows the class of a word (noun, verb, pronoun, adverb, adjective, conjunction or other), and the meaning conventionally assigned to the word is given in a way that further particularises it. The Macquarie Dictionary’s definition of a flute names the part of speech (noun) to which the word belongs and describes the meaning in terms of classification:

flute /flut/ noun. 1. a musical wind instrument consisting of a tube with a series of finger holes or keys, in which the wind is directed against a sharp edge, either directly, as in the modern orchestral transverse flute, or through a flue, as in a recorder. 2. an organ stop with wide flue pipes, having a flutelike tone.

Paragraphs using definition as their basis of unity aim to classify particular phenomena or experiences. This technique provides a list of statements that support the topic sentence. The statements are usually organised in order of importance, from greatest to least. (Organisation from least to greatest is not recommended for formal academic writing.)

Definition paragraphs may also include explanation and illustration to convey greater precision. In such paragraphs, the topic sentence is supplemented with sentences containing examples of instances, functions, processes or characteristics of what is presented or claimed in the topic sentence.

**TRANSITION WORDS THAT EXPAND MEANING OR
ADD ONE IDEA TO ANOTHER**

additionally, again, also, and, another, as well as, besides, by means of which, equally, equally important, finally, first, for example, further, furthermore, in addition, in fact, in the first place, last, lastly, last of all, moreover, next, second, secondly, still, that is, too, which means

The following paragraph opens with a topic sentence (underlined) that is gradually expanded through explanation and illustration throughout the paragraph.

Taxonomy is a method of scientific analysis. The word taxonomy derives from the Greek words *taxis*, which means ‘arrangement’ and *nomia*, which means ‘distribution’. When a scientist analyses her subject of inquiry, she looks at its component parts to see how they are arranged and distributed. A botanist, for example, classifies plants in terms of their species, phyla and genera. When examining a particular plant, she will consider its stem, leaf structure, and the component parts of its generative system.

By the end of this paragraph, we can see how the meaning has been made clear through expansion of the initial idea (what ‘taxonomy’ is).

Definition paragraphs can also proceed by negation, that is, by showing us what a thing is *not*. In defining a university, a writer might provide a dictionary definition that tells us that a university is ‘an institution of higher learning, conducting teaching and research at the undergraduate and postgraduate level’. The writer might then inform us that a university is not a high school, technical college, business college or seminary. To be complete, a definition that uses negation to define a word or concept should be accompanied by a clear statement of what the subject *is*.

Sometimes, definition paragraphs contain elements of other ‘types’. In the following definition paragraph, Pat Harrington also includes historical recount in her definition of a new sport and martial art:

In 1882, Jigoro Kano founded the Kodokan Judo Institute in Tokyo, Japan. *Ko* means ‘lecture’ or ‘practice’, *do* means ‘way’ and *kan* means ‘hall’. The original Kodokan hall was only twelve tatami mats in size and was situated in the Eisho temple in the Shitaya district of Tokyo. In this first dojo (practice hall), Jigoro Kano began teaching his own system, which he renamed *judo*. The word *judo* is derived from two syllables, *ju*, meaning gentle or ‘pliable’ and *do*, meaning ‘way’. With this new system, based upon the principle of pliability of mind and body, non-resistance to opposing strength, the best use of energy, *judo* began to grow and become enormously popular. The formula of Kodokan Judo was completed about 1887. The Kodokan Judo Institute had three broad aims: physical education, contest proficiency and mental training. As well as being a fighting art, *judo* is a sport and a form of physical and mental training based on scientific principles: a ‘way’ of human development that can be understood by people all over the world.

Pat Harrington

6. COMPARISON AND CONTRAST PARAGRAPHS

A paragraph that uses comparison emphasises similarities. A paragraph that employs contrast emphasises differences. Formal essays often instruct student writers to ‘compare and contrast’ two events, processes, or objects. Sometimes, students are asked to compare and contrast two interpretations of the subject. A paragraph that uses this technique gains coherence when ideas outlined in one sentence are compared and contrasted with those outlined in another.

TRANSITIONS THAT SUGGEST COMPARISON

also, analogous, as, as well, at the same time, correspondingly, equally, in the same manner, in the same way, in a similar fashion, just as ... so too, likewise, resembles, similar, similarly

In the following paragraph, Frank Brennan SJ compares and contrasts the ways in which different countries have negotiated indigenous rights.

The Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia and the Dominion of New Zealand were all parties to the negotiations before the Statute of Westminster 1931. The constitutional development of each country since then has been very different, especially regarding bills of rights and the recognition of indigenous rights. Canada and New Zealand have enacted a constitutional Charter of Rights and Freedoms and an unentrenched Bill of Rights respectively. Canada has negotiated numerous land claims settlements, constitutionally recognised existing aboriginal treaty rights, proposed an inherent power of aboriginal self-government and called aboriginal representatives to the negotiating table even in constitutional discussions. New Zealand has reactivated the 1840 Treaty of Waitangi with a Waitangi Tribunal which has power to recommend the recognition of Maori rights to government and legislative recognition of treaty principles. This has given the courts a role to play in supervising government development programs that impinge on traditional Maori activities.

Frank Brennan SJ

TRANSITIONS THAT SUGGEST CONTRAST

although, and yet, as opposed to, at the same time, but, by contrast, conversely, counter to, despite, different from, differently, even so, even though, for all that ..., however, in contrast, in opposition to, in spite of, instead, nevertheless, notwithstanding, not the same, on the contrary, on the other hand, regardless, still, though, whereas, while, yet

In the following paragraph, Clive Hamilton compares and contrasts believers in cargo cults and believers in the fetish of economic growth.

Westerners might mock cargo cults as primitive superstition, but there are strong parallels with the modern growth fetish. Cargo cults and the growth fetish both invest magical powers in the properties of material goods, possession of which is believed to provide for a paradise on earth. This state can be attained through more cargo or more money; each has prophets whose role is to persuade ordinary people to keep the faith, to believe that more cargo or more money will arrive and will take believers to a plane of ecstasy. While the colonialists who ruled over the cult members were defined by their possession of large amounts of cargo, those who rule over people in the grip of the growth fetish are defined by their ownership of large amounts of money, and in both groups there is a widespread belief that anyone can join the elite by acquiring similar magnitudes of cargo or money. Westerners seem to differ in that they understand that the cargo does not appear from nowhere but must be produced, although many people believe that fortunes can be conjured from thin air through pyramid selling, lotteries, stock market speculation, tax evasion, or myriads of get-rich-quick schemes. Even those who do no more than write books on get-rich-quick schemes often get rich quickly. Like the cargo cultists, many Westerners are willing to abandon more traditional sources of sustenance, such as a nine-to-five job, in order to pursue manna.

Clive Hamilton

Many writers adhere to one style of paragraph construction throughout. This sometimes makes for dull reading, so writers often vary their paragraph contents by mixing the modes. Thus, it is not unusual to find, for example, definition and process, or definition and recount in a single paragraph.

COMBINED PARAGRAPHS

Each of the paragraph types discussed so far reveals an internal logic that follows a pattern related to the paragraph's purpose. Paragraph structures are often less tightly organised around a single structural pattern. Formal writers often combine methods in their paragraphs, but you will observe that formal paragraphs contain a clear topic sentence, and that connections between sentences are generally clearly signposted with transition words. Even when you combine methods in your own writing, make sure that your topic sentence indicates some principle of organisation that will follow.

Like Clive Hamilton's paragraph on cargo and growth fetishism, the following paragraph combines comparison and contrast, but it also employs descriptive techniques, in an account of two seventeenth-century Parisian theatres. Note the attention to detail in relation to size and number in description of architectural features (the *loges* referred to are boxes where spectators sat). The key words that signal comparison or contrast are in **bold** type.

Unlike the Marais, the Hôtel de Bourgogne was purpose-built, but on the same model. The latest research suggests that the theatre measured approximately 33 by 13.6 metres. Depending on the number of *loges* along the side walls and the short end wall (probably two tiers of seven, with five *loges* on each tier facing the stage), it would seem that in 1647, when internal structural alterations were carried out, the entire stage depth at the Hôtel was 10.7 metres, **but** provision for a passage backstage would have limited this to 8.75 metres. The possible width of 13.6 metres would be reduced by supporting columns on both sides, leaving a proscenium opening of some 9.7 metres net. **Thus** the usable space on stage, the effective playing area, was virtually a square, just under 32 feet across and 29 feet deep at most. This may seem small **in comparison** with some modern panoramic stages, such as the former Théâtre National Populaire at the Palais de Chaillot in Paris, **but in fact** it corresponds closely to the area commonly available on present-day British provincial and even London theatre stages.

CJ Gossip

The final comparison of the stage dimensions of the Hôtel de Bourgogne with those of a contemporary British theatre could be expected to help readers visualise the acting space of the older theatre. The phrase ‘but in fact’ significantly contributes to making the comparison concrete and memorable.

In every paragraph that you write, ensure that transitional words signal the relationships between parts of sentences and between sentences. Transitional expressions convey many things: emphasis on particular connections, temporal or spatial relationships, the relevance of claims, digressions from or interruptions to your main points, and results and conclusions. By making connections clear and precise, transitional expressions help readers to see the logic in paragraphs.

Chapter 15: Paragraph Structure 2

In this chapter, you will learn how to focus on logic in paragraphs that deal with argument and persuasion. You will also learn to recognise logical fallacies.

The paragraph types discussed so far demonstrate orderly ways of presenting information and arranging ideas. Each of the paragraph types can be used to convince readers that the writer is thoroughly familiar with the subject under discussion. Some writers go so far as to call all the paragraphs that focus on factual evidence ‘descriptive’.

Teachers of writing and rhetoric generally use the labels ‘argumentative’ and ‘persuasive’ for paragraphs that seek to persuade a reader through the presentation of more abstruse forms of reasoning. This chapter explores the characteristics of such paragraphs. Chief among the characteristics is the practical application of logic additional to the varieties in paragraphs discussed so far.

CAUSE AND EFFECT ANALYSIS

A paragraph that uses cause and effect analysis seeks to establish a relationship between events. Take care when forming conclusions; many events that occur in succession, or that occur almost simultaneously may not necessarily be related causally. Writers need to be alert to the fine distinction between coincidence, correlation and causality. In order to establish a causal link between two events, all possible factors that could have bearing on them should be considered. Here is an example of one form of common error in logic.

The Greens won the deciding seats in the election, and the price of petrol shot up straight afterwards. That is what happens when Greens get elected.

For such a statement to be true, it would be necessary for the writer to prove that the price of petrol would not have risen in any case, or that the price rise could have no other possible cause except a Green electoral win. The fallacy of attempting to connect two events that occur in succession is known as 'post hoc ergo propter hoc', or 'after this therefore because of this'. An old superstition supposed that an accident following one's meeting with black cat was a result of the encounter.

A similar fallacy is one that states that a causal relation must exist between two events that occur at the same time. It is similar to the thinking that underlies superstitions such as believing that success in an examination is the result of using a particular pen to write the answers. Some events may have complex causes, and some ostensibly straightforward events may have far-reaching consequences. At all accounts, one should not assume that simple answers exist for complex problems.

In composing cause and effect paragraphs, it is usual to state an effect in the topic sentence and to then outline the possible cause or causes. Alternatively, the paragraph could start with a list of causes and then proceed to outline the effect or effects. In either case, the paragraph starts by stating what is known, before proceeding to propose and test the possible 'unknown' factors.

To assess the cause or causes of an event (or events), choices must be made between likely and unlikely causes. Writers of formal papers must consider all possibilities and then establish a chronological order (in similar fashion to historians and writers of certain fictional narratives). A chronological order does not prove causal connection between events, but it helps to winnow out irrelevant data.

TRANSITIONS THAT SHOW CAUSE AND EFFECT

accordingly, affects (**verb**), as a consequence, as a result, because, because of, consequently, due to, effects (**noun**), for, for that reason, for this reason, for this purpose, hence, if ... then, on account of, on that account, results in, since, so, therefore, thus, to this end, with this object

Here is a cause and effect paragraph that illustrates careful assembly of information to support a claim. The last two sentences outline the assumptions underlying the claim in the first sentence. The body of the paragraph outlines evidence for the claim, and the final sentences state the assumptions on which the claim is based.

The pattern of inheritance in colonial Armidale illustrates the nature of family relationships in different class and occupational groupings. Where family wealth was based on land, the grid thrown forward was one of property rights to which a few sons, but typically not all, could attach. Notions of lineage **ensured** that properties would remain largely intact and in the family name. Some urban entrepreneurs and professions acted similarly, but there was a tendency amongst this sector of the middle and middling classes to throw forward a grid of occupational skills, supported by cash gifts which sons could then use at their discretion to establish themselves. The view of inheritance subscribed to by many farmers and graziers was one of status replacement. Sons inherited the property and property rights that their parents had enjoyed. Urban professional and commercial families were more likely to subscribe to status attainment where, ideally, sons would achieve a status similar to or above that of their fathers, but the mix of status attributes would be different. **One set of inheritance practices was based on** securing a position for selected sons; **the other set was based on** securing an advancement in life for all sons. **One set was based**

on holding property and associated rights intact for the next generation; **the other set saw merit in** a changing economic world where the advantages of parental wealth would secure an assured but unprescribed future for the next generation.

John Ferry

ARGUMENT AND PERSUASION

Argument and persuasion paragraphs are important building blocks of many academic assignments that invite students to argue a position. Both employ the tools of rhetorical logic in presenting evidence for claims.

In everyday usage, ‘argument’ can signify anything from the topic of a debate, the plot of a book, or the cause of dissension, right up to an acrimonious altercation. In traditional rhetoric, however, ‘argument’ refers to speech or writing that seeks to persuade an audience or reader to think or act in a particular way concerning a particular situation. In ancient times, public speakers and rhetoricians formulated guidelines for argumentation that could be used by citizens to frame public policy or settle disputes in law courts without recourse to non-verbal or violent means. Like modern legal practice, formal academic writing that seeks to inform and persuade still draws on the systematic conventions of formal logic. The conventions include the presentation of evidence and proofs for claims.

One familiar form of evidence is the presentation of facts. Facts are things that are known to exist or to have happened. They can be readily verified. While they do not constitute arguments by themselves, they can lend weight to claims and counterclaims. They can also be manipulated, but they are in any case preferred to opinions, which, like prejudices, are based on subjective and changeable beliefs. Since formal academic discourse is not concerned with opinions but with matters that can be rationally discussed, you should offer evidence of sound reasoning and avoid offering personal opinions in your formal writing assignments. Your teachers and examiners are interested in the evidence you bring to support your considered arguments. Your teachers may also have strong emotional attachments to certain beliefs, but as academics, they are more interested in the quality of your reasoning than in your emotional attachment to beliefs which they may or may not share.

(Note that in legal parlance an ‘opinion’ is an appraisal or judgment that is based on reason, while ‘opinion’ means something quite different in general usage. Where a student might write in an essay that ‘It is a widely held opinion that the movie *Ken Park* should not be subject to censorship’, allowance should be made for the fact that such ‘opinion’ may change. A legal ‘opinion’ is less likely to be overthrown on fickle grounds.)

The aim of argument in academic writing is to persuade a reader to accept or reject a proposition, or to consider a topic from a particular point of view. In this formal context, argument is based on evidence and on the validity of claims. It is therefore not so much concerned with establishing ultimate ‘truth’ as with demonstrating the ability of the writer to support or refute a proposition.

The argumentative proposition or topic can be presented to students in many ways. A common form is a proposition (sometimes framed as a quotation) accompanied by a directional word or phrase such as ‘Discuss’ or ‘Evaluate’. Some conventional directional words are listed in the following box.

Criticise	Give your judgment on the merit of the theory or theories relating to the facts, and support your judgment by discussing the evidence.
Discuss	Investigate the proposition or examine by argument, giving your reasons for and against the proposition.
Evaluate	Appraise the worth of the proposition or process in light of its truth or usefulness, and include your considered view.
Examine	Investigate the matter in detail, and outline the implications.
Interpret	Clearly and fully present the meaning of the matter under investigation, and give your appraisal of it.
Justify	Present the grounds of a decision or conclusion.

Topics for an English Composition course might include variations on the following.

Voting in elections should not be compulsory.

University education should not be free.

The minimum age for obtaining a driver's licence should be twenty-five years.

All Australians, including English-speakers, should be at least bilingual.

Hollywood movies no longer reflect or respect the values of most families.

The instruction for the final topic might be 'Offer your view on the following comment' or 'Discuss'. In the other sentences, the word 'should' signals the invitation to argue.

DEDUCTIVE AND INDUCTIVE REASONING

Argumentative writing can be organised in different ways. One method is to use deductive reasoning: you can present your view of the matter under discussion and then inform the reader of the reasons why you have come to hold that view. If you were writing on the topic of compulsory voting in elections and disagreed with the proposition, you might state your disagreement in a topic sentence, and proceed to offer reasons for doing so. Each of the reasons might then serve as the basis of further paragraphs in an essay.

Another method of organising material is to use inductive reasoning. Inductive procedure first outlines the reasons for holding a particular view, and then the generalised conclusion is announced. If you chose to use an inductive approach in order to state your view of compulsory voting in elections, you might list some examples of particular events resulting from compulsory and non-compulsory voting situations, and then state your conclusion. The final sentence of such a paragraph might then logically serve to introduce further accounts of the circumstances of each example you have mentioned (narrative paragraphs), or it might logically lead to paragraphs containing definition, description, explanation, comparisons or contrasts.

In paragraphs employing either deductive or inductive logic, as in all formal writing assignments, it is important that you stick to the topic, and that all introduced material be relevant to the topic. Just as validity of assumptions can be refuted, so can the evidence for claims, so it is a good idea to indicate to your reader that you have thought of objections that could be made to any claims and evidence you offer. In the following paragraph, the writer offers arguments and counter-arguments relating to the advantages of writing a biography of a living person who is known to the biographer. The paragraph opens with an assertion, considers an alternative, and concludes with a statement that opens the way for further expansion on each point made in the paragraph.

Many writers on biography have asserted that intimacy with a biographer's subject is necessary to write great biography. Dr Johnson and Voltaire firmly believed so, and the latter declared that 'It is a monstrous piece of charlatanism to pretend to paint a person with whom you have never lived.' Some writers dispute this, and they ask whether contemporaries can properly evaluate their subject's character and career without historical perspective. They single out the disadvantage of Boswell's life of Johnson, and they cite the fact that Boswell knew Johnson only for the last quarter of Johnson's long life. Boswell gave that quarter about a thousand pages in his book, and he gave to Johnson's first fifty-six years only about two hundred and fifty pages. Critics argue that in addition to the distortion that must emerge, the biography is in reality as much an autobiography as a biography. They further argue that the best parts are one man's recollections of another and reveal more about Boswell than Johnson.

Ian Grenfell

The writer of the next paragraph similarly considers an argument that might be introduced to oppose his main contention (that reading is 'work'). By drawing analogies to other types of work, the writer maintains the initial claim. More importantly, the nature of the work of reading is outlined, so that by the end of the paragraph, the sense in which the writer uses the word 'work' is clear, and the grounds of an argument have been laid.

When we read a popular novel, an advertisement, or the newspaper, we engage, quite literally, in a certain type of work. The ordinariness of that work allows us to be engrossed in what we are reading; we need not reflectively consider all the things that we are doing. The ordinariness of that work also makes the use of the word 'work' seem extreme. Nevertheless, reading does consist of work, and that work can be problematic; we notice that the typesetter has mixed up some of the letters or words, that a verb tense is wrong, that a story makes an inexplicable jump. The discovery of such errors reveals how closely we attend to the work of reading; the people on the morning train show us how absorbing that work can be; any primary school teacher can tell us that the skills of reading must be learned.

Eric Livingston

(Note that some teachers might object to the use of the word 'we'. The text is taken from a publication of the Indiana University Press, an academic publisher that appears to accept such first-person plural format. Check with your own teachers before assuming that the convention is universal.)

In the next paragraph, the writer moves from premises to conclusion through a step that involves supplying evidence. The assumption in the first sentence is that study of prehistory can assist understanding of a country's identity. Evidence for the importance of understanding identity is supplied by the fact that archaeological research is supported by governments of newly independent countries in Africa and Asia. The significance of the evidence is then outlined, and the result of the support is encapsulated in the paragraph's final sentence.

Recognition of the contribution prehistory can make is demonstrated by the support given to archaeological research by governments of newly independent countries in Africa and Asia. This support is all the more significant, considering the underdeveloped state of these countries and their need to develop their economies. Some of them have spent their entire historic period under the domination of European powers. By making their people aware of

a previous and no less important independent history, prehistory can increase their pride in themselves and their nation.

Megan Hungerford

Clear statements of the premises and conclusions of arguments assist readers to follow the logic of an argument. Many academic writers do not always signal every connection, however, because they do not wish to bore intelligent readers. Because you are probably not a very practised academic writer, it would be wise to adopt the habit of making your premises and conclusions quite clear. You should practise using words such as those in the following table. They are commonly used in the course of formal academic argumentation.

premises	conclusion
as	consequently
because	hence
first	therefore
for	it follows that
for the reason that	thus
in as much as	it can be concluded
since	it can be inferred

LOGICAL FALLACIES

A fallacy is an error of logic. The following types of logically unacceptable argument should be avoided.

Factual error

This error is often considered minor. It is not. Here are two factually incorrect assertions.

The Gobi Desert is the largest desert in the world.

The United Nations organisation was established soon after the First World War.

If you are in any doubt about the truth of your statements, you should check the data. Consult relevant authorities in printed or on-line sources.

Sweeping assertion (unsubstantiated generalisation)

While formal academic writing allows for generalisations based on carefully researched facts and valid assumptions, it does not favour unsubstantiated sweeping assertions (called universal statements) or exaggerated claims. A claim that all students who work part-time have poor examination results requires factual evidence. It is safer to offer evidence (from authoritative research) for broad generalisations.

Outdated or inappropriate sources

When supporting an argument with data from other sources, be sure to cite up to date facts and to refer to the most authoritative sources. If you wish to quote from early editions of scholarly works or from early commentaries on academic topics, be sure to indicate whether the work has been superseded by more recent editions and commentary. Care should be taken to ensure that sources quoted are authoritative and credible to your reader. This is particularly the case with regard to the World Wide Web. The Internet offers a huge amount of data on many issues that relate to academic topics, but you must exercise special care to quote only the most legitimate and respected authorities. Information emanating from 'refereed' authors and sites (such as university-sponsored Web sites) should be preferred to sites that offer 'opinion'.

Ad hominem ('against the person')

This is an argument that speaks against the person presenting a proposition, rather than offering an argument to disprove the proposition.

How anyone could consider Murena a serious politician when he is fond of dancing and banqueting is a complete mystery.

She believes university education should be free, but of course her family are all members of trade unions.

Emotionally charged language

Emotionally charged words and expressions have no place in formal academic writing that aims to convince through logic. If you wish to comment on the irrational connotations of certain expressions, you should do so by all means, but you should not substitute emotionally loaded expressions for argument.

The rhetorical critic Richard Weaver speaks of ‘god terms’, ‘devil terms’ and ‘charismatic terms’ that exercise emotional rather than logical appeals to audiences and readers. Words such as ‘patriotic’, ‘socialist’, ‘me-generation’ and ‘yuppie’ all carry emotional overtones. A ‘charismatic’ term such as ‘freedom’ or ‘national security’ can mean whatever a writer or reader wants it to mean. If you offer clear indications of the sense in which you use terms that could have ambiguous interpretations, your reader will understand that you are aware of the possible confusion associated with the terms.

Begging the question (‘petitio principii’)

In this fallacy, the premise presumes the conclusion. The conclusion is often a rewording of the premise itself.

Night driving takes place after the sun goes down.

Children spend too much time sitting in front of the television. That’s how they come to watch too much television.

Blake was a great poet. We can tell he was a great poet because people who appreciate great poetry like his work.

The examples tell readers what they already know. A reader might ask what, if anything, the writer of the first example is trying to say about driving at night. The statement about television appears to be a waste of time. The third statement gives no information about Blake’s poetry or his readers. The examples offer no insight into the causes or effects of things. Try to avoid banal restatement: attempt to persuade your reader that you have thought about the reasons (or the results) of certain phenomena.

Vicious circle

This variation on begging the question also circles back on itself.

The Brandenburg Orchestra is the finest in Australia because its musicians are so brilliant. The string section is outstanding and the woodwind section is world-class. We can tell they are so talented because they belong to the Brandenburg.

False dilemma (also called false dichotomy)

The false dilemma proposes that one of two alternatives is true when in fact more alternatives may exist. This fallacy takes the form of an 'either-or' choice, and it suppresses other evidence.

We can save the forests, or we can provide full employment.

If immigration is not restricted, the country will be overrun by foreigners.

If the age of consent for same-sex relations is lowered to sixteen, the legalisation of bestiality is bound to come before Parliament.

In each of these cases, it does not follow that matters are so simple. Neither does it make sense that there is only one possible alternative to the first proposition, or only one outcome if the first proposal is adopted. The false dilemma is an ill-informed or ignorant response to an issue that may have quite complex factors and outcomes.

Oversimplification

Oversimplification is a similar case to the either-or fallacy. In a formal argument, you should neither oversimplify your own position nor an opposing position. You should consider all the possible complicating factors of each view, so that you demonstrate awareness of complexities associated with both.

People on welfare have only themselves to blame for their hardship.

Such a statement does not take into account the many reasons why people must resort to public welfare. Like the false dilemma, the oversimplification often reveals an emotional rather than a logical response to an issue.

Post hoc ergo propter hoc ('after this therefore because of this')

This fallacy proposes a false cause for an event or proposal that occurs at the same time or shortly after the first event or proposal. In academic writing, care must be taken not to jump to conclusions. Coincidence and correlation should not be confused with causality.

There has been a rise in sexual offences since sex education was introduced into State Schools, so it is clear that sex education has been responsible for antisocial behaviour.

A statement such as the foregoing should be treated with scepticism because it ignores other possible explanations for a rise in offences. (Some possibilities could include a proportional rise in population and antisocial acts in general, a greater awareness and wider reporting of offences, or an extension of the definition of criminal offences to cover a wider range of antisocial activities. There may be many other reasons for the increase.)

Non sequitur ('it does not follow', also called 'false cause')

The non sequitur occurs when little or no connection exists between the premises and the conclusion.

Anyone on the dole is lazy.

If tertiary education were free, no one would value it.

The writer of that report attended university for four years. She must be an authority on the subject.

Examinations should be abolished; I find writing answers hard.

Australia is a multicultural country, so everybody lives in harmony.

Argument from ignorance

In this fallacy, a writer claims that a thing is true because it has not been proven false, or claims that something is false because it has not been proven true. The person who makes a claim shifts the burden of evidence to the person addressed. Examples of this fallacy include writing that concerns the existence of gods, UFOs, fairies, miracles and other psychic phenomena. The proposition is often put as a question.

How can you prove that leprechauns do not exist?

(Note that in this example, the proposition breaks two conventions of formal writing: it asks a question, and it uses second-person address.)

There is no proof that human-like life forms do not exist on other planets.

Appeal to inappropriate authority

Appeal to inappropriate authority is an emotional rather than a logical appeal. Appeals to inappropriate authority fallaciously invoke figures of authority in order to give weight to an argument that has little or nothing to do with the figure's field of expertise. Examples include the use of sporting figures or actors to promote commercial items or to support or comment on politics or religion. The appeal to authority can only be effective when the authority invoked has particular expertise in the matter at issue. An argument relying on the views of a general historian would not necessarily provide the best evidence for a conclusion in an essay on causes of problems in economic negotiations between Japan and Australia. Appeal to the views of Treasurers or trade commissioners of both nations could be of much greater relevance to the case.

Appeal to the people

Appeals to the people are emotional rather than logical. Such appeals make use of terms such as 'most people', 'anyone can see', 'the majority', 'everyone', 'I think we would all agree', 'all right-thinking people', and 'you can see'. Politicians, propagandists and advertisers use this appeal in order to persuade a target audience that is assumed to share the writer's views.

No one could doubt that the government is doing all it can to assist people who are genuine refugees.

Irrelevance

Irrelevance occurs when there is no connection between the grounds of the argument (the premises) and the conclusion.

A diet of fresh fruit is the natural way to long life.

Alcohol consumption causes antisocial behaviour.

Material introduced as evidence for a claim should be relevant to your claim. In the second example, antisocial behaviour is attributed to one possible cause, but the statement is framed in such a way as to render the claim almost meaningless. The statement also overlooks many of the causes and effects of alcohol consumption, and it does not indicate the degree of alcohol consumption that might in some circumstances produce antisocial effects. In an essay on anti-social behaviour, it would be wiser to canvass a range of possible factors and evidence before making any claim.

Argument by analogy

Argument by analogy can be useful in some circumstances as an additional ‘proof’, but it is a weak appeal to reason. The fallacy of reasoning by analogy stems from the comparison of one aspect of a complicated system or circumstance with another system or circumstance, while influential factors are ignored. Examples include comparisons between religions, philosophies, the causes of wars, and the causes of contemporary social, economic or cultural phenomena (recession, unemployment, human rights, postmodernism) with historical phenomena. To be effective in argumentation, things compared must have similarities that are relevant to the intended conclusion; furthermore, you should beware of assuming that because things are alike in one respect, they are alike in all respects.

Christianity and Islam are similar because they both stem from Judaism.

If Hitler had been resisted from the outset in the same way that Saddam Hussein was resisted, there would have been no World War II.

Slippery slope ('domino theory')

This fallacy asserts that if one event should occur, others, usually disastrous, will ensue. Propositions of this nature commonly commence with variations on 'If we...' and 'Unless...'

If people start smoking at an early age, they will be addicted for life.

Unless conditions are made harsher for illegal immigrants, the country will end up full of foreign criminals.

Anecdotal evidence

This appeal fallaciously offers a single event or experience as evidence for a general proposition. Examples include sweeping assertions about banks, the public service, Aboriginals, teachers, students, immigrants, refugees, women, homosexuals and others, on the evidence of a single encounter. Anecdotal evidence does not provide a sufficient sample on which to base a general conclusion.

Finally, note that some arguments may contain more than one fallacy. Assignments should be checked to ensure that propositions are supported by evidence, and that alternative evidence has been taken into account.

Chapter 16: The formal essay

In this chapter, you will learn about the formal essay. You will learn about the stages involved in planning, researching, writing, revising, checking and presenting a formal essay.

DEFINITION

The *Macquarie Dictionary* defines an essay as ‘a short literary composition on a particular subject’. An essay consists of a group of paragraphs focused on that subject. The precision of language and grammar in sentences, and the logical linking of sentences to form coherent and unified paragraphs can now be seen as providing building blocks for connected longer passages of writing.

Formal academic essays are usually persuasive and argumentative. They require you to carefully consider a point of view, respond to an argument, or weigh up alternatives and offer a conclusion that takes alternative views of the issue into account. Clear evidence for claims must be presented, and qualified statements should be used instead of sweeping assertions. The formal essay will also generally employ some of the paragraph types discussed in the last chapter. Because the essay is the written record of your considered effort to persuade a reader of the logic of your conclusion, it will be evaluated on the extent to which it reveals the breadth of your reading and the quality of your thinking on the subject.

In American colleges and universities, students are required to frame their own essay topics relating to the general subject of the essay. In Australian universities, lecturers conventionally require students to write essays on specific or 'set' topics. The required length of the essay is clearly indicated, and students may be given some directions or hints as to where research materials for the essay can be located. Some key instructional terms will be included in the phrasing of the essay topic. You will make life easier for yourself if you make sure that you understand the topic and plan your approach in accordance with the instructional words before beginning to draft your response.

WHEN TO START THE ESSAY

Start an essay as soon as you are given the essay topic. You need to decide on an approach and collect materials long before the essay submission date. If you leave your planning, research and revising until the week or so before the essay deadline, you will find that classmates who are quicker off the mark have borrowed many or all of the library resource materials, and that alternative resources require time to locate or obtain. You will not work at your best in a situation where you are distracted by doubt or where you start to panic.

If you are presented with a choice of essay questions, you should start analysis of the questions early. Some questions may contain particular difficulties or require hard-to-get resource materials. Early analysis will help you to calculate the time available to investigate the reference materials for each question and complete the research and writing.

Stage 1: Understanding the question

Whatever your topic, you should consider the essay as a testing or proving of an idea. When you write an essay, you are setting out an argument. It sounds like stating the obvious to say that you cannot write a good essay if you do not understand the question. As many teachers have found, however, some essays show that students have not understood the question. It may be that some questions are poorly formulated. If you do not understand the question, you should seek further elucidation from your teacher because failure to address the question will result in poor performance.

Essay topics range from the very simple to the complicated and from the particular to the very general. Sometimes the topics do not appear in question format, but they take the form of a statement that you are instructed to discuss or otherwise respond to. Regard the instructional words as signposts that point out what is required.

Instructional words

Instructional words may be as brief as ‘How?’ or ‘Why?’ Certain others are commonly included in essay topics.

Account for	Give reasons for some event (or for adopting some process).
Analyse	Examine how a thing or process works, or show how and why an issue or event occurs (or came about). You may need to examine cause-effect relationships as well as chronological or spatial relationships. You should not just describe or list general features; you should demonstrate your comprehension of factors that have a bearing on the subject.
Argue	Present the case for and against a proposition.
Compare	Examine the similarities between two (or more) events, objects, theories or ideas. You may sometimes be asked to note differences as well as resemblances.
Contrast	Examine the ways in which the events, objects, theories or ideas at issue are dissimilar. You should offer detailed comment on differences.
Criticise	Assess the merit of a theory, idea, approach or practice. Pay close attention to all the factors that have some bearing on the issue under examination, and comment on the advantages or drawbacks associated with the matter under review. (Variations on this keyword include ‘Offer a critical appraisal’.)
Define	Provide precise meanings, and include details and examples to make your interpretation clear. You should not simply rely on a dictionary definition of the matter you are asked to define.
Describe	Characterise, recount in narrative form, or relate precise details of appearance, size, weight, texture or cost.

Discuss	Offer your point of view after you have investigated arguments for and against a question or issue. Support your conclusion with evidence or sound reasons.
Enumerate	Provide a list, or specify steps or stages.
Evaluate	Examine strengths and weaknesses (of an argument or proposition) and offer your judgment. You should outline the advantages and the limitations of the matter under discussion. As with the keyword 'Criticise', 'Evaluate' does not require 'opinion' based on emotional grounds. You should aim to offer objective and authoritative appraisal.
Examine	Investigate the phenomenon at issue and include an account of the implications.
Explain	Make clear, in detail, how and why a thing happens, or provide reasons, and indicate cause and effect relationships. Explanation puts things in spatial or temporal order.
Illustrate	Make the function or characteristics clear by citing specific examples.
Outline	Omitting minor details, give a systematic account of the principles of a thing or process, or main points (of an argument, for example), indicating the structure and how the parts relate to each other.
Relate	Tell the story (or list the events in sequence, showing how things are connected).
Review	Critically examine the subject, commenting on the main points. This may include some degree of paraphrase or summary, but it also includes a judgment of the evidence or argument presented in the work. Resist the temptation to offer a lengthy recount or paraphrase.
State	Concisely present the facts or main points.
Summarise	Indicate the main points of an issue or event, leaving out fine details.
To what extent	Consider an argument, or compare both sides of an issue, and offer a judgment, together with your reasons for your conclusion.

As this list indicates, interpretation often necessitates reviewing the possible positions that can be adopted in relation to the meaning or significance of a text, document or event. While evaluation is often implicitly sought (particularly in regard to aesthetic topics in the fine arts and performing arts), emotive and vague language should be avoided.

Note that in writing about history and the fine arts, attention should be paid to appropriate verb tense. A description that recounts historical events should consistently employ past tense.

The first volume of Edward Gibbons' *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* was published on 17 February 1776.

Essays that refer to ideas should use present tense: ideas are considered to be still living. Present tense is therefore used when writing of the content of a text or of a work of art (a film, novel, play, poem, or opera).

In *Nosferatu*, Murnau's 1921 film version of Bram Stoker's novel, *Dracula*, Stoker's hero Jonathan becomes the vampire's double.

Because teachers and examiners in many disciplines use essays to evaluate students' understanding, it is wise to indicate reasons for statements that you may make concerning cause and effect, or the interrelationship of parts, so that your points are clear. Extended recount of events is not necessary. You can assume that your assessor is familiar with the event, process, or text in question, so your essay should focus on your interpretation of factors relating to the phenomenon, process or sequence of events you are asked to describe. A brief summary of the contents of a text or document is usually sufficient to show that you comprehend the matter. When you are specifically asked to analyse or evaluate a document (or set of documents), be sure to avoid retelling the 'story'; discuss the style of narrative or structure or the mode of argument and quality of evidence in the document you are reviewing.

Identification of the components of a question is critical. Besides noting instruction words, you should locate key words that may require particular definition and explanation. You should also note expressions that limit the scope of the essay. If the topic of the essay were, for example, 'Analyse the causes of the 1890s depression in Australia', the instruction is 'Analyse'. The general topic is 'causes of the 1890s

depression', and the words that limit the discussion are 'in Australia'. Your research may turn up many books and articles on the subject of economic depression, but you will need to focus on those that are relevant to the period and the place mentioned in the topic. You may otherwise waste a good deal of time in general reading that is only marginally related to the topic.

Sometimes the essay topic may contain no explicit restricting statement, but you may assume that there is some restriction on the range of the topic. If the essay topic were, for example, 'Discuss the advantages and disadvantages associated with the proposal that the minimum age for obtaining a driver's licence should be raised to twenty-five', you would assume that the question refers to current Australian conditions. Some comparison and contrast with conditions in other countries or periods could be included in the essay, but the focus should be on the topic in its relation to contemporary Australia.

Stage 2: Brainstorming the topic and working towards a thesis statement

You probably know something about the topic from general experience. Now you need to write down what you know and what you require to find out, in order to focus your research. First of all, make sure that you comprehend what the question requires. This may involve checking definitions, and it will certainly involve paying close attention to every word. When you are satisfied that you have comprehended the essay question, you should restate it in such a way as to show your understanding of it and your point of view toward the issue. This restatement will help you to formulate your **thesis statement** and direct your research more efficiently.

The process of writing down everything you know about the subject of the essay is called brainstorming. You can use mind-maps, lists or any other technique that helps you to make a quick record of what you know and what you need to find out. This process can help you to further refine your thesis statement. If you are at a total loss for ideas, you should do more reading on the issue.

Stage 3: Researching and notetaking

Your reading must be pertinent to your topic. Explore the recommended reading, where a list of primary or secondary references has been provided.

If no particular reading has been recommended, make sure that your reading is relevant to your topic. A scattergun approach to research may deflect you from the topic and delay your start on the actual writing. If you are unfamiliar with library facilities, seek the help of a librarian. Librarians are there to help you.

Your research should not be limited to one source or writer on the issue. If you have done insufficient reading, the quality of your argument will suffer. You cannot develop a balanced view of the subject if you do not consider several points of view. A personal opinion is no substitute for substantiated argument.

Whether you are taking notes, recording speeches or broadcasts, downloading electronic material, or photocopying printed documents, you must keep an accurate record of your sources, including the author's name, full title of the text, the date and place of publication or transmission, the name of the publisher or source of transmission, and the page numbers. (Recommended ways of documenting sources of electronic materials are provided in Style Guides associated with specific disciplines. Some universities expressly insist on a certain style for general use.) Detailed records of sources are essential for accurate documentation. If you fail to accurately indicate sources in your text, and you omit them in your list of references or bibliography, you may be accused of plagiarism. Accurate documentation is a matter of academic courtesy. It also provides evidence that you have familiarised yourself with relevant literature on your subject, and that you can work in a thoroughly professional manner. The sooner you practise accurate and relevant documentation, the easier the business becomes.

Notes should be brief. You should resist highlighting copies of documentary sources until you have skimmed their contents. It could be useful, on your first reading of a copied document, to make some light marginal annotation where you have been struck by a pertinent piece of information or a well-expressed summary of a viewpoint. On a second attentive reading, you can highlight parts of the document more selectively. If you intend to use quotations in your essay, make sure that they are brief, relevant and accurate. Quotations must appear in your work exactly as they appear in the original text. This means that you should not use italic type unless the quoted material is in italic type in the original. You should also ensure that the spelling of any quoted words is exactly the same as in the original. Finally, make sure that the quotations are in accurate context; you must not put a different 'spin' on materials you cite.

You can now consider your thesis statement. It should be based on what you have brainstormed and what you have read relating to the topic, but it should not just be a summary of what you have read. A thesis statement should set out clearly what you are aiming to prove, and it should be directly relevant to the question. The thesis statement's relationship to the essay is like that of a topic sentence to a paragraph. What you are setting out to demonstrate in any approach to a thesis statement is your **argument**. A good essay should convince the reader that your argument is valid. This has nothing to do with what you believe; rather, it concerns what you can prove or demonstrate using the material and information at hand.

Stage 4: The essay plan – working out the order of presentation

Now that you have a thesis statement, it is possible to plan the essay. In developing the thesis statement, you will have found a number of points that will help you to support that statement. Your essay will be made up of these points. You should first of all try to make a list of all the points that you feel should be included in the essay. Not everything you have found will be relevant to or will support the thesis statement. You should not be afraid to discard irrelevant material, no matter how attractive it is.

It will help you to make your essay more persuasive if you think of it as having a head, a body and a tail. The head is the thesis statement. The paragraphs that develop the argument in a logical sequence make up the body. The conclusion of the essay is the tail. The conclusion is not an afterthought or a list of points you have made. It should present the inevitable result of the entire argument.

Let us suppose that you are asked to 'discuss' the following topic: 'The minimum age for obtaining a driver's licence in Australia should be raised to twenty-five years of age.' Further, let us suppose that you have brainstormed the question and finally decided to argue in favour of the proposition. While your essay plan will probably include more material than your final essay draft can accommodate, it will probably look something like the following model.

Introduction (paragraph 1)

Thesis statement: There are compelling reasons why the minimum age for obtaining a driver's licence in Australia should be raised to twenty-five years.

- a. The current age ignores statistics relating to serious accidents and the ages of drivers.
- b. It has no basis in age or maturity of the driver.
- c. It differs from State to State.
- d. Older people have fewer accidents, but they are compelled to bear the cost of increased insurance premiums and medical care as a result of younger drivers' accident rates.

The body of the essay (paragraph 2)

The reasons for the current age limits do not take into account age-related accident statistics.

- a. (Most accidents involve drivers in lower age brackets and reflect the inexperience of the drivers. [Cite evidence: statistics])
- b. There are more cars today than there were when the age limits were set.
- c. Today's cars are bigger, faster and more powerful.
- d. Traffic conditions are much more complex and demanding today than they were when the age limits were set.

The body of the essay (paragraph 3)

The current age limit does not take maturity of drivers into account.

- a. Driving is a skill that improves with maturity. [Cite an authority]
- b. Maturity occurs over many years.
- c. Teenagers do not begin maturing (or achieve maturity) at the same rate.
- d. Motorists' organisations, road traffic authorities, police forces and insurance companies acknowledge that driving skill is not universally acquired at a young age. [Cite authorities]

The body of the essay (Paragraph 4)

A standardised national minimum age for obtaining a driver's licence is desirable.

- a. The current situation creates confusion from State to State. [Cite figures]
- b. A driver can legally drive under the age limit if he or she holds a licence from a different state. [Evidence?]
- c. A standardised age would make national regulations easier to establish and make interstate cooperation more effective.
- d. A standard national driving age would bring Australia into line with other countries and make Australia's international driving permits more acceptable. [Cite examples]
- e. Exceptions could be made for persons who work in rural occupations and those who have no alternative means of transport to travel to school or work. [Other countries' rules, for example?]

The body of the essay (paragraph 5)

Experienced drivers should not be subject to costs associated with younger drivers' accident liability.

- a. The cost of insurance and medical care is increased as a result of younger drivers' accidents. [Cite statistics]
- b. The costs resulting from young drivers' accidents are unfairly distributed among taxpayers. [Cite statistics]
- c. Experienced drivers are less likely to engage in potentially dangerous acts categorised as 'road rage'. [Cite statistics]

The body of the essay (paragraph 6)

Arguments against raising the driving age are not based on fact and fail to consider current statistics on driving and accidents.

- a. These arguments are primarily made by younger drivers who lack the experience to support such arguments.
- b. Current ages evolved haphazardly and should not be used in arguments about the age for a licence.
- c. There are no studies that support an argument for granting licences to younger drivers.

Conclusion (Paragraph 7)

Raising the age limit would reduce road accidents, increase harmonious interstate relationships and have a positive effect on the economy.

Stage 5: Refining the plan

Once you have decided on the organisation of the material, revision or reordering of the original points will usually be necessary. In the model plan, for example, although all the points are clearly linked to the thesis statement, you may not have room in your essay draft to expand on all of them. This means that you must decide which of them present the most persuasive arguments, and you can then revise the plan. Having a good plan makes essay writing much easier. It will help if you remember that the final essay must have at least three clear sections:

1. Introduction**2. Body of the essay****3. Concluding paragraph****Stage 6: Structuring and writing the first draft**

A good essay is not achieved in one draft. The first draft, however, can be made easier if the essay plan is reasonably well constructed. If you have written your refined essay plan on your computer, it is a good idea to make a copy and to use the copy as the basis of your first draft. You can use each sketched-in paragraph of the plan and then fill out the details (including particulars of statistics and other references) in fully written-out paragraphs. The structure of every essay you write will vary according to the requirements of your subject area and the specific question assigned, but it is important that the essay plan and the draft reflect a strong sense of appropriate structure.

In the model plan, the argument is structured in such a way that the strongest points are made first, and the other points are arranged in descending order of importance. Writers of persuasive essays commonly adopt this order; this way, a reader's attention is drawn at once to the strongest point, and all subsequent claims and examples in the essay are seen as reinforcement of the main point.

The reverse order of proceeding in a persuasive essay, from least important point (or item) to most important, could also be employed if you wanted your essay to build up to a climax. This is a useful approach if you want to draw attention to details gradually, in the course of a long essay, but the method may not be quite so effective in shorter essay assignments. If you are in doubt about the specific requirements of your subject area, you should read the essay guidelines provided in any handbook or information sheets provided by your teacher. Some subject areas offer students model essays, or they recommend essay structures that have particular relevance to the discipline. Make sure that you follow the recommendations. Some common ways of arranging material are summarised in the following box.

WAYS OF STRUCTURING ESSAYS

BY ORDER OF IMPORTANCE

from most important to least important
OR
from least important to most important

BY ORDER OF LOGICAL SEQUENCE

cause-and-effect (presents and examines possible causes for a thing or event OR presents and examines possible effects of a thing or event)

deduction (starts with a thesis statement and presents factual evidence and logical support for the claim)

induction (presents specific evidence and draws a general conclusion; commonly used in essays in the sciences)

BY CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER

(Evidence – for example, a chain of events – is presented in chronological order.)

The introduction

A reader should be able to understand at once what the essay is about, and what the writer's attitude to the topic is. You should follow the example of good professional writers, who do not assume that readers know beforehand what the writer's approach to a topic will be. A good formal introduction will therefore include a restatement of the given question or topic, and an indication of the viewpoint that will be adopted. An introduction should also get the reader's attention through some interesting expression of the subject and the approach that will be adopted.

The draft introduction may achieve these aims at once, but it is more likely that the introduction will need to be revised and polished after the first draft. Many professional writers start with a sketchy outline of the topic, background to the topic, and the procedure they will follow in the body of the essay. You should not spend too much time writing and then rewriting the first draft of the introduction; it is enough to make your thesis statement clear, and then to move on to some comment about the way you will arrange your argument. This way, you can proceed to the 'body' of the essay, where you will systematically discuss the main ideas and the evidence for your claims.

The body of the essay

You should provide as much information as possible in the first draft. Editing of grammar, spelling, and redundant expression and data can be left for the draft revision. You can work from the essay plan to facilitate the organisation of the argument, and it may be useful to use sub-headings for each paragraph or section of the essay; you can remove these subheadings from subsequent drafts. You should not be too worried if you find that you have a great deal of relevant research material to back up some claims, but insufficient evidence for others. The important job is to write down what you know and to include whatever evidence you have that backs up your claims. If you are waiting for reference materials that will support some sections of your work, you can carry on writing paragraphs or sections for which you do possess references. A first draft does not always start with the first sentence and flow smoothly to the end.

Make sure that you include full details of the sources of any material you quote or refer to in your draft. Chasing the location of insufficiently recorded or misplaced sources is time consuming, so record all references accurately the first time around. Whether you use an author-date or footnote system to record references to others' work in

your text, it is crucial that any information or views that you record be acknowledged and accurately referenced.

As supporting information becomes available, make sure that you incorporate it into the relevant place in your draft while your memory of the location is still fresh. One way of making sure that you know where the information should go is to write messages to yourself in your draft:

‘obtain alternative interpretation of these statistics’;

‘consult another view of this event’;

‘see what x says about this’; or

‘back this up’.

This way, you are starting to think like a professional in your field, and you are doing what your marker or reader might be tempted to suggest if you handed in a final essay that lacked adequate support for claims.

The conclusion

The conclusion of an essay should leave a reader with the impression that whatever was claimed in the thesis statement (including point of view) and the outlined method of proceeding has been demonstrated. In drafting the essay, your conclusion may be as short or as long as you wish. Generally, a short essay will not require a lengthy conclusion. A conclusion can recapitulate the main points of the argument, or it can point up the relative significance of points raised. Sometimes, a conclusion can highlight the importance of the entire issue to which the essay topic is related. In all cases, a conclusion may also suggest other issues associated with the topic, or it may suggest where further work on the topic might be directed.

Revising the draft

Now that the first draft has taken shape, you can embark on the activity that distinguishes all good writers: the work of rewriting. There are several ways of going about this process. One effective method is to print out a double line-spaced hard copy of the first draft, and take a pencil to it. The first priority is to discover where the essay strays from the topic. Every single sentence should be relevant to the topic and the thesis statement. Strike out any sentences that immediately appear to be irrelevant.

You should also be looking for places where you need to make your meaning clearer and your argument more persuasive. In many cases, this can be done by additional writing or by inclusion of more evidence (from reputable and relevant authorities). Mark the parts of the draft where such changes appear necessary, and do not be afraid to add more words. Superfluous words and sentences, and overlong quotations can be attended to later.

If you discover awkward expressions, including incorrectly chosen words and incorrectly spelt words, briefly mark them and jot down alternatives that come to mind, and keep moving. Your essay is under your control, so you should not be afraid to make minor or major changes to your text. If you notice frequently repeated expressions, mark them for alteration or deletion. By the time you have made these editorial alterations, you can try reading the entire draft aloud. If you find that you stumble over any expression, you can mark the expression for further change. You should not be embarrassed to ask a friend or two to read the essay and comment on any passages that seem unclear. If your friends have no expertise in your subject, their help may be more crucial. If these readers cannot make sense of any sentence or paragraph, you need to rewrite the sections that they find incoherent or contradictory. If your friends seek clarification of any point, you should not try to explain your meaning verbally and then forget the problem. The essay should be written in such a way that every sentence is clear and that the relationship between sentences in every paragraph is also quite clear.

When you have carried out these revision processes, put the essay aside for a short time (an hour or two, or a day or so) before you start another revision. As you proceed with the third draft, you should be looking hard at ways to incorporate all the useful suggestions that resulted from your first revision and your friends' comments. Here is a list of some aspects you can check off.

ESSAY CHECKLIST

Paragraph checks

- The introduction is clearly connected to what follows in the rest of the essay.
- The introduction is not too long.
- Every paragraph is clearly relevant to the thesis statement.
- Every sentence in the paragraph is relevant to the paragraph's topic sentence.
- Support for claims is relevant and adequate to the claims and to the thesis statement.
- The conclusion is clearly related to the thesis statement and clearly has reference to the body of the essay.
- The conclusion is not too long.
- The conclusion does not introduce new material.
- Transitions between paragraphs are clear.
- Paragraphs are not too short.
- Every paragraph is unified, coherent and clearly expressed.
- There are no over-long paragraphs (of a page or more in length).

Sentence-level checks

- Every sentence is complete.
- Sentences are varied in length and structure.
- Active verb forms are used wherever possible.
- First and second-person pronouns have been abolished.

Spelling and punctuation checks

- Australian spelling has been used throughout (unless where American sources have been quoted verbatim).
- Proper names (of people, places and institutions) are correctly spelt.

- No contractions (such as *it's*, *e.g.*, *what's*) are used.
- The draft has been proofread manually as well as with a spell-checker with Australian language setting.

In-text referencing and quotation check

- Every quotation appears exactly as it does in its source document.
- Every quotation is clearly introduced in such a way that readers can tell from the outset who is the source.
- Short quotations are presented in single inverted commas.
- Quotations over 30 words or three lines in length are set in from the left-hand margin, in a block, without inverted commas.
- No quotation of any sort appears in italic type except when the original text is in italic type.
- The source of every quotation is clearly attributed. The recommended documentation style for the discipline is used consistently and accurately.

References (or Bibliography) check

- The References (or Bibliography) appear on a separate page.
- The list of References (or Bibliography) contains details (in appropriate style for the discipline) of every source referred to in the essay. It does not contain other material.

Format check

- The essay topic (or question) appears on a separate page at the front of the essay.
- The essay is printed in double-spaced lines (not one-and-a-half spaces), on numbered pages with 4 centimetre margins on the top and sides of each numbered page for the marker's comments.

SAMPLE ESSAY

‘Animal experimentation should be discontinued.’ Do you agree?

Animal experimentation has a very long history, and some of these experiments have contributed to important medical research; however, many have not (Singer 1976). Although the number of experiments involving animals has fallen substantially since the 1970s, in 2005, approximately 5 million animals were used in experiments in Australia alone (AAHR 2005) even though most of the resulting knowledge could be acquired without using animals (Watts 2007). In order to make experimental procedures involving research animals more acceptable, the ‘three Rs’, replacement, reduction and refinement, were recommended in the 1950s, and these principles have been embodied in legislation in some countries since the 1980s, but change has been slow (Monamy 2000). Dr Gill Langley from the Dr Hadwen Trust for Humane Research is convinced that at the beginning of the 21st century, there is no reason why animal experimentation cannot be eliminated (Langley, cited in Watts 2007), but there are good reasons why it should be eliminated. Animal experimentation should be discontinued because it is cruel, because the results are not always reliable and because there are now alternatives to animal experimentation.

Animal experimentation should be discontinued because it is cruel. Pain and suffering may be inflicted on animals by inducing diseases, and they are often diseases that the animals would not normally suffer from, for example, cardiovascular disease and certain cancers (Brown 1988).

Animals may be deliberately injured, as was the case in the head injury experiments on primates at the University of Pennsylvania. In 1984, the Animal Liberation Front released stolen videotapes that showed researchers in the university's Head Trauma Research Centre inflicting head injuries on baboons using an 'acceleration injury' device that caused severe whiplash. The animals were left paralysed and comatose, and they lingered in this state for up to eight weeks before they were killed and their brains analysed (Orlans et al. 1998). As a result of this case, the treatment of laboratory animals improved, but animals may still be subjected to, among other things, amputation and other mutilation, electric shocks, skin and eye irritation, poisoning, freezing, burning, broken bones and gunshot wounds (Brown 1988) and the pain and suffering associated with such treatment.

Another reason why animal experimentation should be discontinued is because the results are unreliable. Successful testing of a drug in animals does not always guarantee its safety in humans (Brown 1988), and thalidomide is one example of this. Thalidomide was 'extensively tested on animals before it was released' for human consumption (Singer 1976). It had produced no ill effects when tested on dogs, cats, rats, monkeys, hamsters and chickens, but produced deformities in human babies. In fact, thalidomide is harmless to most animals, but not to humans (Singer 1976). More recently, in 2006, six people taking part in trials of TGN1412, which was thought to be an effective treatment for disorders such as 'rheumatoid arthritis and certain inflammation-mediated cancers

such as B-cell chronic lymphocytic leukemia' (Pippin 2006), suffered multiple organ failure. This drug too had previously been widely tested on animals, including mice, rats, rabbits and monkeys (Pippin 2006), with positive results. In humans, however, 'the drug triggered lethal immune system attacks on the participants' own bodies' (Pippin 2006). Another drug that was successfully tested on animals only to be withdrawn when it was proven to have severe side effects in humans is Vioxx. Identified as 'the single greatest drug-safety catastrophe in the history of the world' (PCRM 2006), it is estimated that Vioxx caused 140 000 heart attack deaths world wide in a period of four and a half years (PCRM 2006). In animal tests, Vioxx proved not only to be safe but also to protect against the risk of heart attack in six animal species (PCRM 2006), and there are many other examples where drugs that were successfully tested on animals proved to be toxic or even lethal to humans.

Finally, animal experimentation should be discontinued because there are many alternatives to this type of experimentation, including the use of less- (or non-) sentient organisms, in-vitro techniques, non-biological alternatives or human studies (Monamy 2000). Coelenterate hydra, for example, can be used to detect teratogens, chemicals like thalidomide that cause fetal abnormalities, because vertebrate teratogens also cause abnormalities in hydra (Monamy 2000). In-vitro techniques using cell, tissue or organ cultures can be used to test potential toxicity. In addition, the use of cultures derived from humans means that the potential dangers of extrapolating from animal models to human models are avoided (Monamy 2000). The non-biological alternatives

available include mathematical modelling and computer simulation, and a more recent development, microdosing, where very small doses are administered to human subjects and the effects analysed with the use of liquid chromatography and mass spectrometry, means that more drugs for use by humans can be tested on humans (Watts 2007). In fact, Watts (2007) suggests that microdosing ‘promises to establish itself as the gold standard’ when it comes to testing the efficacy of therapeutic drugs.

Animal experimentation should be discontinued because it is no longer an acceptable, useful or necessary practice. It involves unacceptable cruelty, the knowledge gained from animal experiments is not always applicable to humans, and many alternatives to animal experimentation now exist.

References

- Australian Association for Humane Research Inc. (AAHR) 2005, 'Statistics', viewed 17 July 2008, <<http://www.aahr.asn.au/statistics.html>>
- Brown, L 1988, *Cruelty to animals: the moral debt*, Macmillan, London.
- Monamy, V 2000, *Animal experimentation: a guide to the issues*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Orlans, FB, Beauchamp, TL, Dresser, D, Morton, DB and Gluck, JP 1998, *The human uses of animals: case studies in ethical choice*, Oxford University Press, New York.
- Physicians Committee for Responsible Medicine (PCRM) 2006, 'A troubled history', viewed 16 July 2008, <http://www.pcrm.org/magazine/gm06summer/troubled_history.html>
- Pippin, J 2006, 'Drug tragedy traced to animal test failure', *Good Medicine*, vol. XV, no. 3, viewed 16 July 2008, <http://www.pcrm.org/magazine/gm06summer/drug_trial.html>
- Singer, P 1976, *Animal Liberation: a new ethics for our treatment of animals*, Jonathan Cape, London.
- Watts, G 2007, 'Alternatives to animal experimentation', *British Medical Journal*, 27 January 2007, pp. 182-184.

ANSWERS

Chapter 1: Simple sentences

EXERCISE 1

1. They left before sunrise. – *personal pronoun, third person, plural*
2. Australia is a rich country. – *proper noun*
3. These look interesting. – *demonstrative pronoun, plural*
4. Keiko climbed the Sydney Harbour Bridge. – *proper noun*
5. Love conquers all. – *common noun, singular*
6. Anything is possible. – *indefinite pronoun, singular*
7. She hates soap operas. – *personal pronoun, third person singular*
8. Someone damaged the photocopier. – *indefinite pronoun, singular*
9. Museums are popular with tourists. – *common noun, plural*
10. Sydney is the capital of New South Wales. – *proper noun*

EXERCISE 2

1. Memories are priceless. – *common noun, plural*
2. Everything is expensive. – *indefinite pronoun, singular*
3. He went to Cairns. – *personal pronoun, third person singular*
4. Many looked pale. – *indefinite pronoun, plural*
5. Goats eat almost anything. – *common noun, plural*
6. Sam Jones is a politician. – *proper noun*
7. Applause is always welcome. – *common noun, non-count*
8. Dogs are popular pets. – *common noun, plural*
9. Newcastle is Australia's sixth-largest city. – *proper noun*
10. That was a surprise. – *demonstrative pronoun, singular*

EXERCISE 3

1. Both are correct. – *indefinite pronoun, plural*
2. Earthquakes are rare in Australia. – *common noun, plural*
3. Nothing is impossible. – *indefinite pronoun, singular*
4. Kakadu National Park is famous. – *proper noun*
5. They read the article. – *personal pronoun, third person plural*
6. Safety was a priority. – *common noun, non-count*
7. Experience is the best teacher. – *common noun, singular*
8. This is the best. – *demonstrative pronoun, singular*
9. Echidnas are shy animals. – *common noun, plural*
10. Each deserves praise. – *indefinite pronoun, singular*

EXERCISE 4

1. Bushfires kill wildlife. – *common noun, plural*
2. No one left the room. – *indefinite pronoun, singular*
3. It covers a large area. – *personal pronoun, third person singular*
4. Mt Isa has a hot, dry climate. – *proper noun*

5. Few were available. – *indefinite pronoun, plural*
6. Jobs remain scarce. – *common noun, plural*
7. These are unsuitable. – *demonstrative pronoun, plural*
8. Pollution is a serious problem. – *common noun, non-count*
9. Theirs arrived yesterday. – *possessive pronoun, third person plural*
10. Something is missing. – *indefinite pronoun, singular*

EXERCISE 5

1. Everyone expects a holiday. – *indefinite pronoun, singular*
2. Customers have fewer choices. – *common noun, plural*
3. They introduced new technology. – *personal pronoun, third person plural*
4. Some call him a dictator. – *indefinite pronoun, plural*
5. Attitudes exert a powerful influence. – *common noun, plural*
6. Urbanisation increases the demand for water. – *common noun, non-count*
7. His is the winner. – *possessive pronoun, third person singular*
8. New Zealand is an important trading partner. – *proper noun*
9. Penguins are usually monogamous. – *common noun, plural*
10. More is expected tomorrow. – *indefinite pronoun, singular*

EXERCISE 6

1. The dog family has a long and interesting history.
2. This idea came from a newspaper article.
3. Most Australians are moderate or occasional drinkers.
4. A chronological approach suits a biography.
5. Their diet consists of fish.
6. A large crowd gathered in the courtyard.
7. The events occurred a century ago.
8. This book has a simple structure.
9. Colour reproduction remains a complex process.
10. Their expectations were unrealistic.

EXERCISE 7

1. A thermometer measures temperature.
2. Close relationships demand self-disclosure.
3. The general store was the main feature of all country towns.
4. All behaviour has a biological basis.
5. Individual tastes vary widely.
6. Different plants have very different life cycles.
7. Advertising costs were high.
8. Box jellyfish stings are nearly always fatal.
9. Photosensitive film layers form the basis of colour film.
10. The ancient Phoenicians built the first efficient sailing ships.

EXERCISE 8

1. Temperature extremes have adverse effects on animal reproduction.
2. The recorded sound is quite remarkable.
3. The latest results show important variations in the rates of growth.
4. Desert climates have less than 25 centimetres of rain in a year.
5. The songs explore themes of distance and remoteness.
6. An average day involves the performance of many routine activities.
7. Feudal society was static.
8. The first true cities appeared about 5,000 years ago.
9. All vegetables are important sources of dietary fibre.
10. Suspended sediment is a major polluter of water.

EXERCISE 9

1. That clarinettist auditioned for the orchestra.
2. Some ancient societies were matriarchies.
3. Environmental conditions constrain human activity.
4. The small company was no longer viable.
5. An average reader reads at the rate of 300 words a minute.
6. Mobile libraries overcome the barriers of distance and remoteness.
7. The simplest ideas are sometimes the best.
8. Some shopkeepers specialise in organic vegetables.
9. Transportation systems vary from country to country.
10. These latest employment statistics are a bad sign.

EXERCISE 10

1. Eucalyptus trees produce oils of varying composition.
2. The most recent version is by Christopher Lack.
3. The average surface temperature is 15 degrees Celsius.
4. The United Nations has its headquarters in New York.
5. Many native Australian animals are nocturnal.
6. Each chapter contains exercises and activities.
7. Her favourable comments encouraged them.
8. An enthusiastic audience greeted the performers.
9. The bad weather continued for four days.
10. Every species interacts with other species.

EXERCISE 11

1. People and situations differ.
2. Valleys and floodplains are popular places for human habitation.
3. The platypus and the echidna are monotremes.
4. Sapphires and rubies are varieties of the mineral corundum.
5. Growth and development are a natural part of life.
6. Socialisation and enculturation are not identical.
7. Discussion and recognition are only the beginning.

8. Whales and dolphins belong to the order Cetacea.
9. Heating, transport and industry cause air pollution.
10. Both Steven and Patrick are talented tennis players.

EXERCISE 12

1. Noise researchers and hearing specialists recognise ringing ears and temporary hearing loss as signs of auditory fatigue.
2. Hailstorms and strong winds damage ripe fruit.
3. Many plants and animals are rich in oils and fats.
4. The world's top sportsmen and sportswomen are among the highest paid individuals in the world.
5. All dyes and most pigments are complex organic compounds.
6. Social behaviour and sexual reproduction depend on cooperation.
7. Chapatis, rotis and nan are all traditional Indian flat breads.
8. Culture and personality are dependent on one another.
9. All sea fish and some sea birds drink seawater.
10. Growth, renewal and repair are fundamental features of all human life.

EXERCISE 13

1. They **adopted** two strategies.
2. Different plants **have** very different lifecycles.
3. Most Australians **live** in cities or towns.
4. Bread **comes** in every shape and size.
5. The Prime Minister **made** a short speech.
6. Human beings **are** about 20 per cent carbon.
7. Trees **reduce** the speed of the wind.
8. Forests **provide** habitats for wildlife.
9. The arteries **carry** blood to all parts of the body.
10. Rainforests **are** spectacular environments.

EXERCISE 14

1. The learner **chooses** the correct answer.
2. Noise pollution **is** a serious environmental concern.
3. Many people **criticised** his proposal.
4. Wetlands **provide** living space for many species of animal life.
5. The people **move** their goods with them.
6. Coffee **originated** in Arabia.
7. Bureaucracies **display** a tendency toward oligarchy.
8. The same problem **exists** in rivers.
9. Plants **are** the basis of all food webs.
10. Specialisation **makes** technological progress possible.

EXERCISE 15

1. High buildings **create** wind tunnels.
2. They **have** a number of important characteristics.
3. Kakadu National Park **attracts** many tourists.

4. None **has** the appeal of the coral islands.
5. Most ski resorts **run** programs for children.
6. Every experiment **begins** with a problem.
7. Pasteurisation **destroys** pathogenic bacteria.
8. The activity **practises** both concepts.
9. This result **is** satisfactory.
10. Many developing countries **depend** on imported oil.

EXERCISE 16

1. All human activity **has** an effect on the global water cycle.
2. Ancient Greek doctors **identified** several types of mental illness.
3. Different land surfaces **produce** distinctive microclimates.
4. Package tours **retain** their mass appeal.
5. Other areas **remained** stable.
6. Most ordinary car engines **have** four or six cylinders.
7. The education program **targets** farm workers.
8. Another camera **records** a different background.
9. Effective management **involves** a focus on the actions of the individual.
10. The region **encompasses** a diverse range of land uses.

EXERCISE 17

1. The Peloponnesian War **lasted** for twenty-six years.
2. His attempts **were** unsuccessful.
3. Urbanisation **is** responsible for this pattern.
4. Large north-facing windows **assist** with heating during winter.
5. Land clearing **increases** the rate of run-off.
6. Temporary work **suits** some workers.
7. Desertification **is** widespread in Africa.
8. The habitats **support** more than 350 bird species.
9. These **unified** the people in a common cause.
10. Forty-one endangered species **rely** on brigalow habitats.

EXERCISE 18

1. The receiver **selects** and **amplifies** the signal.
2. The teachers **plan** and **participate** in class excursions.
3. The parents **assign** tasks and **monitor** the activities.
4. Babies **copy** and **learn** the mannerisms, expressions and speech of those around them.
5. The government **encouraged** and **assisted** the refugees.
6. The students **read** and **discuss** the poem.
7. Technicians **install** and **maintain** the computers.
8. Social behaviour **occurs** in animals and **has** evolutionary origins.
9. The researchers **observed** the lecturers and **assessed** their performance.
10. The catalogue **documents** and **illustrates** more than two thousand works.

ANSWERS

Chapter 2: More about simple sentences

EXERCISE 1

1. The size of the audience **reflects** the popularity of the speaker.
2. Most of the particles **passed** through the sieve.
3. Natural gas supplies in Australia **come** from a number of sources.
4. With only 26 square kilometres of land, Tuvalu **is** one of the smallest independent countries in the world.
5. Contemporary attitudes to the public environment **have** their origins in the past.
6. To Marx, capitalism **represented** a historical step towards the inevitable communist society.
7. People in industrialised countries **eat** too much salt.
8. The dull surface of the wood **absorbed** the light.
9. In the northern half of Australia, one of the major weather hazards **is** the tropical cyclone.
10. The great mountain ranges of the world **contain** some of the world's most spectacular scenery.

EXERCISE 2

1. The commonest cause of death in the western world **is** heart disease.
2. In most societies, sharp differences in socialisation for females and males **remain** the norm.
3. The intersection of a number of forces **brings** people into the export economy.
4. The quality of service at the point of delivery **is** paramount to customers.
5. In pre-industrial societies, much of social life **revolved** around primary groups.
6. The primary driving force of the climate system **is** energy from the Sun.
7. The need for strength **makes** bones rigid.
8. This type of leader **causes** problems in sensitive situations.
9. Of all the revolutions in transport, the invention of the wheel 5000 years ago **is** the most important.
10. A network of dealers **ships** thousands of tonnes of fish into the main cities.

EXERCISE 3

1. ~~At the other end of the scale, some metals of lead, bismuth and cadmium **melt** at low temperatures.~~
2. ~~In affluent countries, obesity **is** a serious problem.~~
3. ~~Urban settlement in the Hervey Bay area **began** in the 1870s.~~
4. ~~Many of the world's greatest cities **owe** their rise to trade.~~
5. ~~In the lungs, blood **absorbs** oxygen from the air.~~
6. ~~The human impact on tropical forests **has** a long history.~~
7. ~~The rise of unemployment **affected** older people in different ways.~~
8. ~~In a later study, they **increased** the number of participants.~~
9. ~~At the other end of the scale, the movements **are** too slow.~~
10. ~~The invention of the mechanised seed drill **brought** great changes to agriculture.~~

EXERCISE 4

1. ~~Lawrence Franklin, the author of the book, **gave** the keynote address.~~
2. ~~The capybara, the world's largest rodent, **reaches** more than 130 centimetres in length.~~
3. ~~The Great Australian Bight, the widest indentation in the Australian coastline, **extends** from Cape Carnot in South Australia to Cape Parsley in Western Australia.~~
4. ~~Socrates, a teacher of ethical questions, **influenced** Plato's early thought.~~
5. ~~Trade, the exchange of goods and services, **is** one of the most basic activities of humankind.~~
6. ~~Brett Whiteley, one of Australia's most successful artists, **held** his first solo exhibition in London in 1961.~~
7. ~~The Fairy Penguin, the smallest of the penguins, **measures** only 38-43 centimetres long.~~
8. ~~Hobart, the capital of Tasmania, **lies** on the banks of the Derwent River.~~
9. ~~Zoning, the regulation of the use of land and buildings, **is** the principal means of enforcing a scheme for land use.~~
10. ~~The Jarrah, one of Australia's most valued hardwood trees, **is** a Eucalypt.~~

EXERCISE 5

1. There **are** three methods of payment.
2. There **is** limited access for large vehicles.
3. There **are** many species of domestic dogs.
4. There **are** several universal paradoxes.
5. There **are** many other influences at work within Australia.
6. There **is** an easy solution.
7. There **are** several explanations for longevity.

8. There **is** one electron in a hydrogen atom.
9. There **are** many complex problems.
10. There **were** twenty-five secondary schools in New Zealand in 1900.

EXERCISE 6

1. Pakistan **has been** an independent state since 1947.
2. The driver of the van **had not seen** the small child.
3. Leatherback turtles **have become** the world's most endangered sea turtle.
4. Diet **can have** a major impact on the quality of sleep.
5. Changing sea levels **have had** a marked effect on many landscapes.
6. Effective means of controlling land use **do not exist** in most countries.
7. All living things **must adapt** to their environment.
8. Engineers **do not agree** with this argument.
9. The ministers **will soon reach** a compromise on agriculture.
10. The orchestra **had** often **played** at official receptions.

EXERCISE 7

1. The sweet potato **did not reach** New Guinea until about 1600.
2. The rebels **had occupied** the parliament.
3. Southern Nigeria **has yielded** remarkable archaeological remains.
4. The management **does not always acknowledge** cultural diversity.
5. Many athletes **do not heed** the warnings about the dangers of steroid use.
6. Only specialised plants **can survive** the harsh climate of a desert.
7. A city **cannot operate** without a government of some kind.
8. Many adolescents **have already developed** poor dietary habits.
9. Proportional graphs **can be** an effective way to present data.
10. Researchers **have rarely understood** the significance of this variable.

ANSWERS

Chapter 3: Subject-verb agreement

EXERCISE 1

1. The number of older people in Australia (**is** / are) growing.
2. The rescue squad (**responds** / respond) to all emergencies.
3. Each of these kinds of communication (**is** / are) important, interesting and complex.
4. Wrinkled skin and grey hair (typifies / **typify**) aging.
5. Steak and chips (**is** / are) regarded as the classic French meal.
6. Neither the studies nor the data (is / **are**) of sufficient quality.
7. Forty-five minutes or an hour (**is** / are) required for the test.
8. Better diet and better hygiene probably (accounts / **account**) for the falling death rates.
9. For rural women, access to paid work and the availability of childcare services (is /**are**) reduced.
10. A dog or a cat (**makes** / make) a good pet for a child.

EXERCISE 2

1. Neither the individuals nor the group (**has** / have) a clearly established status.
2. In most situations, formal teaching and informal education (coexists / **coexist**).
3. A number of companies (provides / **provide**) childcare assistance to employees.
4. The distribution of doctors (**tends** / tend) to reflect the distribution of affluence.
5. The number of young people in the town (**is** / are) a product of its emerging role as a centre for education and training.
6. Neither exercise nor changes in diet (guarantees / **guarantee**) a long healthy life.
7. All parts of the Australian continent (receives / **receive**) enough sunlight for plant growth.
8. The Guide Dog Association (**needs** / need) more volunteers.
9. In some trials, sloppy police work or a bad lawyer (**disadvantages** / disadvantage) the defendant.
10. Neither the number nor the percentage of full time jobs (have / **has**) changed in the last five years.

EXERCISE 3

1. The police or an ambulance (have / **has**) arrived at the scene of the accident.
2. The crowd (**was** / were) gathered on the steps of the monument.
3. Childcare centres at the workplace (is / **are**) not new.
4. The decline of country towns (**was** / were) attributed to low commodity prices.
5. Neither the children nor their mother (have / **has**) arrived yet.
6. Practice or natural aptitude (**explains** / explain) her brilliant performance.
7. The board of directors (**meets** / meet) every three months.
8. Lower wages or job losses (results / **result**) in larger numbers in need of public assistance.
9. The number of new immigrants or the birth rate (**is** / are) declining.
10. The instructions to the operator (does / **do**) not apply any longer.

EXERCISE 4

1. The cost of the books (**includes** / include) airmail postage and handling charges.
2. There (was / **were**) six heavy cruisers in the flotilla.
3. Each of the five models (**focuses** / focus) on important but different aspects of intimacy.
4. Over the years, control of the instruments of mass communication (**has** / have) fallen into the hands of a small number of professional communicators.
5. The precise reasons for the existence of the numerous languages of the world (is / **are**) not clear.
6. There (has / **have**) been major changes in the geographical structure of the metropolitan area.
7. Census data (does / **do**) not measure population mobility.
8. Conditioning, learning by association, (**establishes** / establish) a connection between a stimulus and a response.
9. The relocation program and its effects (highlights / **highlight**) one of the major problems.
10. Family eating habits and peer pressure (influences / **influence**) children's choice of foods.

ANSWERS

Chapter 4: Fragments and phrases

EXERCISE 1

1. The subject is missing.
 2. The verb is missing.
 3. Both the subject and the verb are missing.
 4. The subject and the verb are present but do not express a complete idea.
1. Affected sales and profitability. (1)
 2. Each of these animals at risk of extinction. (2)
 3. Cannot be cared for in their homes. (1)
 4. The technician repaired. (4)
 5. The virus in all samples. (2)
 6. Between relationships. (3)
 7. The related practice euthanasia. (2)
 8. For some kind of coping mechanism. (3)
 9. Research supports. (4)
 10. To ask for explanations when in doubt. (3)

EXERCISE 2

1. The subject is missing.
 2. The verb is missing.
 3. Both the subject and the verb are missing.
 4. The subject and the verb are present but do not express a complete idea.
1. Analysed expectations and possibilities. (1)
 2. In terms of higher education. (3)
 3. Showed awareness of the problem. (1)
 4. To assist economic recovery and development. (3)
 5. By racial and ethnic prejudice. (3)
 6. The institution endorsed. (4)
 7. Evolved soon after. (1)
 8. After its discovery in 1900. (3)
 9. Into the language. (3)
 10. They seem. (4)

EXERCISE 3

Corrected Version—The elements that were fragments are in **bold** type.

Parents can deal with the inappropriate behaviour of young children in three different ways. One possible response to inappropriate behaviour is to distract the child **by offering an alternative activity**. This approach often works well **with children under the age of three**. A second possible response is to simply ignore the inappropriate behaviour. **For potentially dangerous behaviour**, however, this is usually not a suitable response. The third possible response is to punish the child for inappropriate behaviour. The punishment may consist of adding or removing stimuli from the child's environment. A parent may scold or slap a child. This adds stimuli to the environment in a negative and often unproductive way. Another form of punishment is to send the child out of the room or to bed. This removes stimuli from the child's environment **by depriving the child of social interaction**.

Of the three methods, the first should always be the technique of choice. **The other techniques** all have serious drawbacks. Ignoring the behaviour may result in injury to the child **or to someone else**. The use of punishment may actually reinforce the inappropriate behaviour. By providing attention, punishment often encourages a repetition of the inappropriate behaviour **despite the unpleasant consequences for the child**. For a young child, negative attention may be preferable to no attention. Repetition of the inappropriate behaviour may then result in the use of more severe punishment **such as a very hard slap**. At this stage, any attempt at behaviour modification will fail. An angry parent cannot teach or explain much to a crying child who is in pain. Simply removing the child from the scene of the inappropriate behaviour might work **in some circumstances**. It is far better, however, to deal with the behaviour in a constructive way. The child will then gradually learn to distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate behaviour.

EXERCISE 4

- a. prepositional phrase
 - b. verb phrase
 - c. noun phrase
 - d. infinitive phrase
 - e. participial phrase
 - f. gerund phrase.
1. *Making a decision* usually involves choosing one of several alternate solutions to a problem. (f)
 2. There is much evidence *to support this claim*. (d)
 3. *The problems of isolation and loneliness* are difficult to overcome. (c)

4. Traditional crop plants constitute only a small fraction *of the plant world*. (a)
5. In times of high employment and economic growth, *obtaining a job* is relatively easy. (f)
6. *Descended from the same land ancestor as the elephant*, the dugong is a remarkable marine mammal. (e)
7. These changes occurred *against a background of increasing internal tension*. (a)
8. The role of public transport *has continued* to decline in most Australian cities. (b)
9. *Conventional plastic bags* take a century to disintegrate completely. (c)
10. *Recognising the child's musical aptitude*, she engaged a qualified piano teacher. (e)

EXERCISE 5

- a. prepositional phrase
- b. verb phrase
- c. noun phrase
- d. infinitive phrase
- e. participial phrase
- f. gerund phrase.

1. *Economic, technological and social developments* are having a powerful impact on families. (c)
2. Humans are responsible *for the extinction* of many bird species. (a)
3. *Constructing or burning firebreaks of sufficient width* is not always practicable. (f)
4. *Travelling alone or in small groups*, the bird frequents offshore tropical Indian and Pacific Ocean waters during winter. (e)
5. A person's ability *to enter the workforce* is very dependent on educational qualifications. (d)
6. Agriculture is concerned *with the raising of crops and animals*. (a)
7. The suburbs can have *an increasingly important economic role*. (c)
8. *Having poor eyesight*, echidnas depend on their acute sense of smell to locate their prey. (e)
9. Policy changes and cuts in public spending *have caused* a serious welfare crisis. (b)
10. *Repairing the damage* to the ecosystem will take decades. (f)

EXERCISE 6

- a. prepositional phrase
 - b. verb phrase
 - c. noun phrase
 - d. infinitive phrase
 - e. participial phrase
 - f. gerund phrase.
1. *Spending its entire life in water*, the dugong surfaces only to breathe. (e)
 2. One of the effects of acid rain is *to accelerate the rate of weathering* of some building stones. (d)
 3. *Improving the skills of the workforce* is a commonly used strategy to enhance profitability. (f)
 4. The interactions between humankind and the physical environment are *the result of attempts* to satisfy real and perceived needs and wants. (c)
 5. Mountain ranges interrupt *the movement of prevailing winds* and the movement of moisture-laden air. (c)
 6. People *often move* to take advantage of employment opportunities. (b)
 7. Many towns are able to take advantage *of strong community networks* for provision of services. (a)
 8. Settlements are small and have *to move frequently*. (d)
 9. *Moving stock on foot from one place to another* is called droving. (f)
 10. *In the early nineteenth century*, traders and investors were very interested in New Zealand flax. (a)

ANSWERS

Chapter 5: Compound sentences

EXERCISE 1

1. contrast
but, yet
Ozone constitutes less than one part per million of the atmosphere, **but** it is extremely important for life on earth.
OR
Ozone constitutes less than one part per million of the atmosphere, **yet** it is extremely important for life on earth.
2. addition
and
Work on the Canadian Pacific Railway began in 1881, **and** in 1885, people were able to travel by train from Vancouver to Montreal.
3. addition
and
The body contains more than 600 different muscles, **and** each muscle is responsible for a specific task.
4. contrast
but, yet
Some of the representatives were from established nations, **but** others were the leaders of small groups.
OR
Some of the representatives were from established nations, **yet** others were the leaders of small groups.
5. the second clause introduces a result
so
Preliminary trials of the new drug are encouraging, **so** the researchers plan to begin clinical trials as soon as possible.
6. addition
nor (first clause is negative)
The food was not good, **nor** was it sufficient.
7. the second clause introduces a result
so
Competition for jobs was acute, **so** labour was cheap.

8. addition
and
The meat of the animal was good to eat, **and** the skin was useful for making clothes.
9. contrast
but, yet
Petroleum accounts for half of the world's energy supplies, **but** it is expected to last for little more than half a century.
OR
Petroleum accounts for half of the world's energy supplies, **yet** it is expected to last for little more than half a century.
10. alternatives
or
The Department of Public Works officials could approve the building, **or** they could reject it.

EXERCISE 2

Only one solution is shown. In most cases, another word from the same group could be used.

1. After birth, a young primate takes a long time to develop; **moreover**, it depends on parental guidance during much of its immature life.
2. She read the literature on the subject; **then**, she began to assess the information.
3. Brainstorming can be done individually; **however**, it seems to work best with about five to seven participants.
4. Meat is frequently responsible for outbreaks of food poisoning; **in addition**, animal fattening drugs may be harmful to humans.
5. The cost of housing has increased dramatically in the last five years; **consequently**, many people are now spending more than 40 per cent of their monthly income on housing.
6. The platypus is crepuscular; **that is**, it is most active in the early morning and the late evening.
7. An earthquake may raise a portion of the former sea floor well above water level; **on the other hand**, a portion of the land may just as suddenly disappear under the sea.
8. Infant rhesus monkeys were removed from their mothers; **furthermore**, the effects of this maternal deprivation were still evident a year later.
9. Protein deficiency may not kill directly; **nevertheless**, it leaves its victims vulnerable to other diseases.
10. Many people in the world do not get enough food; **as a result**, they do not have the energy to work.

EXERCISE 3

Only one solution is shown. In most cases, another word from the same group could be used.

1. From 1871, women were allowed to sit the matriculation examination at the University of Melbourne; **thereafter**, many girls' schools offered matriculation subjects.
2. Participation in sport improves fitness and health; **in addition**, it affords opportunities for social contact.
3. The local residents wished to establish a community centre; **therefore**, they approached the local council for financial assistance.
4. Rebel groups surrendered more than 3000 weapons during the gun amnesty; **however**, many more guns are still circulating in the community.
5. In 2002, Australia experienced one of its worst droughts in history; **as a result**, the quality of the 2003 wines suffered.
6. There is always room for improvement; **for example**, the teaching materials could be made more attractive to students.
7. Scientists claim advances in cancer therapy as a result of animal experiments; **however**, critics condemn animal experiments as cruel and unnecessary.
8. There was a severe shortage of beef; **as a result**, the price of beef rose sharply.
9. Bites from black snakes are not likely to be fatal; **nonetheless**, they can make the victim very ill.
10. The car made suburbia possible; **furthermore**, the suburbs made the car essential.

EXERCISE 4

1. From 1901 to 1968, there were forty-five shark attacks on divers on the Great Barrier Reef, **and** twelve of these were fatal.
2. The Basque people live in a region of the Spanish Pyrenees; **however**, their origin is disputed.
3. The pale surfaces of pebbles result from scratches from movement against other stones, **so** they scatter light.
4. The Chinese used coal tar for smelting long before the first century BC, **yet** it was not widely used in Europe until the eighteenth century.
5. Most people consume alcohol in moderation on most occasions, **but** some do not.
6. The Latin alphabet has no 'w' or 'y'; **otherwise**, it is the same as the English alphabet.
7. Bamboo has many uses, **and** it is a native grass on every continent except for Antarctica and Europe.

8. Restructuring not only undermines employee security, **but** it also puts pressure on employees to work longer hours.
9. The demand for people with manual skills continues to decline; **moreover**, male workers have been the worst affected.
10. The public admired explorers for their skill and courage, **and** Cook became one of the most famous.

EXERCISE 5

1. China had not always been closed to foreigners; **in fact**, it had enjoyed a period of lively intercourse with the West during the Han dynasty (206 BCE-220 CE) and again during the late thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.
2. Their wealth depended on prosperous and efficient farming; **therefore**, they gave a great deal of attention to the improvement of farming skills.
3. The conquests of Alexander the Great in the 4th century BCE carried Greek bronze-working to India, **and** Greek bronzes soon reached China as articles of commerce.
4. Women artists are still under-represented in many major galleries; **nevertheless**, they are no longer entirely invisible.
5. Things seen in daylight and under artificial light are different, **for** the rate of emission of photons differs.
6. Critics have almost ignored his novels; **in fact**, only one article about his work is available.
7. In Australia, parquet flooring was popular in the 1890s, **but** it was always an expensive alternative to boards.
8. Charles Pearson proposed the subway system for London in 1843, **and** work on the first six kilometres began in 1860.
9. Children up to high school age need, on average, nine hours sleep each night; **however**, half of the children in Australia are not getting it.
10. The camp provided an opportunity to learn all aspects of filmmaking; **furthermore**, it provided young people from isolated areas with an opportunity to mix with others of similar ages.

ANSWERS

Chapter 6: Complex sentences

EXERCISE 1

(a) subordinating conjunction (b) preposition

1. Planning for the future is impossible until present-day behaviour is understood. (a)
2. The first restaurants began to appear in Paris before the Revolution of 1788. (b)
3. The council did not approve the development until he had revised the plans. (a)
4. After he resigned, the reputation of the orchestra suffered. (a)
5. The committee must meet before the end of this year. (b)
6. New Zealand became a Crown Colony one year after the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi. (b)
7. Until the consumer revolution of the eighteenth century, fashionable dress was almost exclusively a sign of the upper classes and their power. (b)
8. The mine has been in continuous operation since Harman first discovered gold in 1853. (a)
9. Some of the negative effects of divorce on children do not appear until some time after the marital breakdown. (b)
10. The tribe has lived in this mountainous area since the beginning of the twentieth century. (b)

EXERCISE 2

1. When a person receives an organ or tissue transplant, the immune system may reject it as foreign.
2. Although the size of the workforce has grown, there are now fewer jobs in manufacturing and agriculture.
3. The transfer of heat energy by conduction occurs when two objects are in direct contact with each other.
4. While memory may falter with age, creativity is ageless.
5. They no longer had to rely on their own strength alone because they had learned how to harness the power of animals.
6. Although oil occurs worldwide, most of the reserves are found in a small number of 'giant fields'.
7. A country will only have an important tourist industry if it has something to attract tourists.
8. When a change is made to a farm system, all of the subsystems are affected.

9. The quality of life is getting poorer because humans are destroying too much of the natural environment.
10. As group size changes, leadership roles change.

EXERCISE 3

1. Many arid and semi-arid soils are saline because they receive insufficient precipitation to leach soluble materials.
Because many arid and semi-arid soils receive insufficient precipitation to leach soluble materials, they are saline.
2. Thousands of lives could be saved each year if scientists could predict earthquakes accurately.
If scientists could predict earthquakes accurately, thousands of lives could be saved each year.
3. The origins of human speech remain obscure although there is no shortage of speculation on the issue.
Although there is no shortage of speculation on the issue, the origins of human speech remain obscure.
4. Learning occurs when behaviour changes as a result of experience.
When behaviour changes as a result of experience, learning occurs.
5. Friendship is not free from tensions even though it is defined in terms of positive qualities.
Even though it is defined in terms of positive qualities, friendship is not free from tensions.
6. Some parts of the world have virtually no rain at all while other parts have as much as eleven metres in one year.
While some parts of the world have as much as eleven metres in one year, other parts have virtually no rain at all.
7. Light waves cannot go around corners although sound waves can.
Although sound waves can go around corners, light waves cannot.
8. Epidemics cannot occur unless a large proportion of the population is susceptible to infection.
Unless a large proportion of the population is susceptible to infection, epidemics cannot occur.
9. Identifying the nature of a conflict is critical as there are two distinctly different methods for resolving conflicts.
As there are two distinctly different methods for resolving conflicts, identifying the nature of a conflict is critical.
10. People use win-lose and lose-lose methods to resolve conflicts because they do not know any other way to resolve conflicts.
Because people do not know any other way to resolve conflicts, they use win-lose and lose-lose methods to resolve them.

EXERCISE 4

1. Goods that are for sale must be displayed to attract attention.
2. Those who seek to please everyone please nobody.
3. Eucalyptus oil, which many people use to remove grease spots, is also employed as an antiseptic.
4. Experiments with animals that were reared in isolation have confirmed the existence of innate patterns of social behaviour.
5. Children who receive an hour's less sleep than usual perform significantly worse on reaction time and memory tests the following day.
6. Any test of ability that is constructed in one cultural setting will elicit relatively poor performances in another culture.
7. Mt Morgan, which is 38 kilometres west of Rockhampton, is one of the most interesting and unusual mining towns in Queensland.
8. A public speaker who is very nervous may still manage to smile and sound relaxed.
9. The first Australian anti-discrimination legislation, which was directed at racial discrimination, was passed in 1966 by the South Australian government.
10. Humidity levels that are too high reduce the amount of heat lost from an animal by evaporation.

EXERCISE 5

1. Expanding commercial opportunities brought increased wealth to the bourgeois elite who dominated urban society.
2. The Europeans did not use stirrups, which originated in China, until the early part of the eighth century.
3. People who are rich can usually move freely from one country to another.
4. The Cold War, which dominated twenty-five years of world history, ended with the collapse of the Soviet Union.
5. Some people who have a compelling drive to succeed are striving for personal achievement rather than the material rewards of success.
6. Cooktown owes its existence to the Palmer River gold rush in the 1870s, which brought more than 30 000 people to the town.
7. Individuals who generate noise that exceeds the legal limits are subject to a fine.
8. A home is the most important asset that most people will acquire in a lifetime.
9. Diophantus, who lived between 100 and 400 CE, is sometimes called the father of algebra.
10. The company that had the best service record won the award.

EXERCISE 6

1. By 1803, Sydney had a regular produce market that was held on Saturdays.
2. In Andamooka, which is 600 kilometres NNW of Adelaide, the permanent residents live underground to escape the heat.
3. The model of the system that is being studied must be clearly labelled.
4. Owners who let their dogs roam free should consider the consequences.
5. Jules Archibald (1856-1919), who was born John Feltham Archibald, was the founder of the *Bulletin* magazine.
6. Herbivores are animals that eat plants to obtain their energy requirements.
7. Albany, which was established in 1826, was the first British settlement in Western Australia.
8. Laws that make it illegal to discriminate against any individual are necessary.
9. The world's largest earthworm, which is found in the Gippsland region of Victoria, grows up to 3.7 metres long.
10. Vegemite, which Fred Walker invented in 1923, is a rich source of B group vitamins.

ANSWERS

Chapter 7: Fragments and run-ons

EXERCISE 1

(a) fragment (b) complete

1. Although it has been a feature of the industrialised world since the 1970s. (a)
2. In the West, it is conventional to treat 1945 as the beginning of the contemporary era. (b)
3. Because this range of variation reflects the complex interplay of a large number of environmental factors. (a)
4. In day-to-day transactions with people, most persons, most of the time, make reasonably accurate judgments of others. (b)
5. Some people require overwhelming evidence before they will change their views. (b)
6. Although the larger species eat wild fruit, and some species will eat meat. (a)
7. Because of the search for genes that are linked to behaviour. (a)
8. The main change in the service industry throughout the developing world has been in the growth of tourism. (b)
9. Because they placed too much of the burden for waste disposal on individual householders. (a)
10. With the discovery of gold in New South Wales in 1851, prospectors began fossicking around the Carcoar area. (b)

EXERCISE 2

(a) 'and' run-on (b) 'fused' run-on (c) 'comma splice' run-on

1. The meeting had ended the hall was empty. (b)
2. The history section of the library was difficult to locate, the reorganisation of shelving was in progress. (c)
3. There was an abundance of resource materials the problem was to discover the most appropriate references. (b)
4. Genre can be defined in many ways in art it refers to scenes of everyday life. (b)
5. The entire class had read *The Scarlet Letter* and they were looking forward to seeing the film. (a)
6. Iconoclasm was originally a theological controversy it also caused social upheaval in the Byzantine Empire. (b)

7. Alienation refers to transfer of ownership, it can also refer to insanity or cultural and social estrangement. (c)
8. John Boyle O'Reilly was a political prisoner in England before his transportation to Western Australia he escaped to America in 1869. (b)
9. The workshop was cancelled, only one person had expressed interest in attending. (c)
10. Claude found marine biology easy, English grammar was more demanding. (c)

EXERCISE 3

(a) 'and' run-on (b) 'fused' run-on (c) 'comma splice' run-on

1. He was intelligent and talented but he had a very quick temper. (a)
2. Sound is a sign of activity and liveliness, the familiar clamour of everyday life can be reassuring and stimulating. (c)
3. Death is an event of great magnitude in human experience every culture on earth ritualises it to some degree. (b)
4. Vegetables are in demand at all times of the year so there must be a steady supply. (a)
5. Energy is at the core of living it does not come free. (b)
6. Individuals in optimal families have high levels of autonomy and differences between family members are accepted and even valued. (a)
7. The story was leaked to the press in early July, the ensuing scandal destroyed his reputation. (c)
8. The country is prosperous and industrialised but it relies heavily on primary production. (a)
9. Eucalypt bark is thick its most remarkable feature is its great insulating quality. (b)
10. He returned to Melbourne a hero, his glory was short-lived. (c)

EXERCISE 4

(a) 'and' run-on (b) 'fused' run-on (c) 'comma splice' run-on

1. Most children see their bicycle as a toy, they should be encouraged to see it as a means of transport. (c)
2. Australians should reduce their use of plastic shopping bags they should use cloth bags. (b)
3. Separation anxiety occurs as part of normal human development and it is most obvious between the ages of one and three years. (a)
4. The chief domestic value of the horse, camel, ass and mule was for transport and other labour tasks their meat was probably used on some occasions. (b)

5. Most of our socialisation involves formal education but a large part of it also occurs in non-formal settings. (a)
6. Advertising costs are high and competition is intense. (a)
7. All motion follows mechanical principles, the motion of the human body is no exception. (c)
8. The light from the sun seems colourless yet it contains all the colours of the rainbow. (a)
9. Half of the forest cover has been lost in the past century, the remainder is dwindling fast. (c)
10. Fruits and vegetables are only in season during certain times of the year their quality varies from crop to crop. (b)

ANSWERS

Chapter 8: More about verbs

EXERCISE 1

1. Evans had managed the team for ten years. (past perfect)
2. Next week, Robert will be studying for his Japanese exam. (future continuous)
3. Sara had been having nightmares. (past perfect continuous)
4. No one will agree with him. (simple future)
5. They have decided to buy a new car. (present perfect)
6. In 1989, she was living in Darwin. (past continuous)
7. Martin will have completed the essay by tomorrow. (future perfect)
8. They were planning a trip to New Zealand. (past continuous)
9. Their ideas are promising. (simple present)
10. The children are playing cricket. (present continuous)

EXERCISE 2

1. Globalisation and technology are forcing governments to rely more heavily on markets. (present continuous)
2. A degree of fashionable dressing existed in New South Wales as early as the 1790s. (simple past)
3. The greatest natural disasters of all time have been epidemics of infectious diseases. (present perfect)
4. Controlling fires will be beyond the capacity of the force. (simple future)
5. The importance of service jobs has changed dramatically in the last century. (present perfect)
6. Establishing the new school had been an expensive undertaking. (past perfect)
7. Assessing the effect of the changes will have been a challenge for researchers. (future perfect)
8. Conservationists have been studying the breeding habits of the turtles. (present perfect continuous)
9. The students will be presenting their papers next week. (future continuous)
10. In the Renaissance, learning was an admired accomplishment. (simple past)

EXERCISE 3

1. More responsibility is being placed on individuals. (passive)
2. The space was designed for children. (passive)
3. The course aims to develop reading skills. (active)

4. The novel was first published in 1903. (passive)
5. Social attitudes and peer pressure are affecting enrolments. (active)
6. Many older Australians are worried about the future. (active)
7. These microbes are perfectly adapted to their host. (active)
8. The transport system remains focused on the inner city. (active)
9. Hundreds of statues were crammed into the small room. (passive)
10. Australian shipyards have produced some remarkable vessels.
(active)

EXERCISE 4

1. A colour can be precisely specified by its hue, saturation and brightness. (passive)
2. Shareholders will soon receive information about dividends. (active)
3. The accession of the duke was secured with the help of his grandfather. (passive)
4. In some parts of Australia, forest clearance continues on a large scale. (active)
5. Action to reduce transportation noise is primarily aimed at aircraft and traffic. (passive)
6. Peripheral expansion remains the dominant feature of Sydney's growth. (active)
7. Many older cars do not have effective pollution control devices. (active)
8. Conclusions are reached on the basis of experimental evidence. (passive)
9. The frescoes will be thoroughly cleaned. (passive)
10. Australia's water use is neither optimal nor sustainable.
(active)

EXERCISE 5

1. Experience shapes all human behaviour.
2. Artificial pastures and wheatfields have replaced the grasslands.
3. A particular set of circumstances has influenced each model.
4. Uneven pressure in the atmosphere causes winds.
5. The Premier gave both authors their awards.
6. Contemporary society challenges these roles.
7. Evidence from two different sources supports thi contention.
8. Soil pH influences the availability of soil nutrients.
9. Detached dwellings dominate the housing stock.
10. Faulkner wrote the script.

EXERCISE 6

1. The National Gallery of Australia is offering these scholarships.
2. Childhood friendship links the two main characters.
3. The department undertakes continuing research.
4. The museum staff had hidden many valuable artefacts.
5. The desire to provide minimum support drives the system.
6. Approximately forty per cent of the group receive income support.
7. The student's behaviour alarmed the lecturer.
8. The current government is increasing subsidies to agriculture.
9. Syndicates of gangsters and racketeers organised much of the crime.
10. Fear of crime discouraged tourists from visiting the country.

EXERCISE 7

1. If this conclusion (was / **were**) correct, the future of the project would be assured.
2. Williams demands that he (is / **be**) given Defence.
3. If the plane (**arrives** / arrive) before midnight, it will be allowed to land.
4. If a higher standard of child-care (was / **were**) mandatory, the cost would increase.
5. It is vital that justice (is / **be**) done.
6. If she (**is** / be) at home, she will answer the door.
7. If more food (was / **were**) produced, the price would decrease.
8. The scheme could be successful if the need (was / **were**) met.
9. If the use of petroleum products (**continues** / continue) to grow, dependence on imports will increase.
10. They will do their best to ensure that he (**is** / be) elected.

ANSWERS

Chapter 9: Working with pronouns

EXERCISE 1

1. They and (**we** / us) decided to go to the concert.
2. She and (**he** / him) had been friends for more than twenty years.
3. The choice was between him and (**I** / **me**).
4. (**She** / her) and I are both interested in contemporary art.
5. They were not prepared to discuss the matter with (he / **him**) and (**I** / **me**).
6. The arrangement was between Tony and (we / **us**).
7. (**He** / him) and I have agreed to disagree.
8. They met Simon and (she / **her**) at the Post Office.
9. Janice and (**I** / me) enjoyed the performance.
10. Rebecca arrived after you and (**I** / **me**).

EXERCISE 2

1. The scientist (**who** / whom) discovered the new virus won a Nobel Prize.
2. The man (who / **whom**) he had attacked was in a serious condition.
3. The narrator, (**who** / whom) is notoriously unreliable, should not be confused with the author.
4. Help was given to (whoever / **whomever**) needed it.
5. The woman (**who** / whom) survived the plane crash sold her story to the tabloid press.
6. The man (who / **whom**) they had seen in the shopping centre looked like the suspect.
7. She is the one (who / **whom**) he is hoping to meet.
8. The culprits, (**whoever** / whomever) they may be, will eventually be caught.
9. Her parents, (who / **whom**) she feared, forced her to end the relationship.
10. The award was given to the student (**who** / whom) had raised the most money.

EXERCISE 3

1. She did not write as much as (**I** / me).
2. The lecturer gave the other students more time than (we / **us**).
3. Their opponents were more aggressive than (**they** / them).
4. She did more research than (**he** / him).
5. We could not afford as much as (**they** / them).

6. They had more leisure time than (**we** / us).
7. A good report is more important to her than to (I / **me**).
8. They paid more for the tickets than (**we** / us).
9. He was given more encouragement than (**she** / her).
10. We felt the cold more than (**they** / them).

EXERCISE 4

These are possible answers.

1. When someone is running for office, he or she essentially has one message: 'Vote for me'.
2. A leader only gains authority over a group by group consensus.
3. Children gradually develop a better understanding of their own behaviour and that of others.
4. People want to feel safe in their own homes.
5. If students do not gain any satisfaction from their course, they will not perform well.
6. Participants must provide a short summary of their experience in the industry.
7. Until children enter school, their lives are usually centred among members of their immediate family.
8. People are hired for a specific job because they have acquired the necessary training and skills in a particular field.
9. Workers may feel alienated from their jobs and lack motivation.
10. As people grow older, their ability to adapt declines.

EXERCISE 5

These are possible answers.

1. A number of variables influence the language people use and the definitions they give to words.
2. Income has a direct bearing on quality of life.
3. Great leaders are not born; they can be trained.
4. In a peer group, children find a context in which they can experience a considerable degree of independent and self-determined action.
5. If a person wants to get things done in a group or organisation, it helps to have power.
6. Participants set parameters within which they operate.
7. Residents are told the kind of pets they may have, the paint they can put on their walls and when they may use the laundry.
8. Each has its own purpose and conditions.
9. The contributor to the book received little recognition for her labour.
10. No children should fear their parents.

EXERCISE 6

These are possible answers.

1. Unless individuals are accepted members of some group, they will be in trouble.
2. All ambassadors maintained their own spy networks.
3. The accused were all given leave to appeal against their sentences.
4. The newspaper proprietors used the papers to launch their political careers.
5. The colonies all sought to promote their own advantage.
6. The Air Force offered apprenticeships and degree programmes to all who wished to further their careers.
7. People function at their best when they have a reasonable level of anxiety.
8. All people experience conflict in different aspects of their lives.
9. When a person speaks to another, he or she inevitably emits non-verbal signals as well.
10. People's past experiences will influence their views.

EXERCISE 7

1. The ABC is showing a documentary about platypuses.
2. When Julie's book was published, she and Caroline celebrated her achievement.
OR
When Caroline's book was published, she and Julie celebrated her achievement.
3. In 1851, gold was discovered at Ophir near Bathurst.
4. As soon as he finished it, McCrae told Howarth that his elegy was the finest poem he had written.
OR
As soon as McCrae finished reading Howarth's elegy, he told him that it was the finest poem he had written.
5. The scheme was expanded to include assistance to low-income families.
6. The engineer said that strong winds had caused the bridge to collapse.
7. When Jack was leaving, he told Lindsay that he had enjoyed his visit.
OR
When Lindsay was leaving, he told Jack that he had enjoyed his visit.
8. The majority of Australians live in coastal cities.
9. Structured interviews that are brief and formal are usually used.
10. The article says that leisure has an important place in Australian society.

ANSWERS

Chapter 10: Parallel construction

EXERCISE 1

1. They studied Indonesian Politics, International Relations and Islamic Economics.
2. By the Middle Ages, watermills were important for grinding grain, sawing timber and pumping water.
3. People in service industries use their personal skills to solve problems and to make life easier for their customers.
4. Good writing should be accurate, clear and concise.
5. An obvious way to arrest tree decline is to plant new trees and to protect existing remnant natural vegetation.
6. Newspapers in Australia often send second-string critics or freelance critics to review theatre productions.
7. The river passes Echuca, Corowa and Balranald.
8. They spent their evenings repairing their equipment and writing their journals.
9. The Roman orator Cicero told the jury that they must listen, weigh and decide.
10. A speech situation consists of three things: a speaker, a subject and an addressee.

EXERCISE 2

1. He worked for a time as a printer and newspaper editor.
2. The Chief Executive Officer was rewarded because she had increased the firm's efficiency and profits.
3. Peter liked planting trees, tending vines and landscaping gardens.
4. DVDs are easier to operate, less bulky to store and cheaper to post.
5. The avocados were stale and tasted woody.
6. The Festival Committee preferred to hire a publicity agent rather than try to do the work themselves.
7. The visiting lecturer answered the reporter abruptly and impatiently.
8. The audience left at intermission and boycotted the second half of the play.
9. The students were told to complete the assignment by Friday and to hand it in by 5 pm.
10. The aim of the workshop was to promote fluent email communication and accurate recording of minutes.

EXERCISE 3

1. Capital punishment is irreversible, inhumane and expensive.
2. Family reunions tend to involve more planning, more people and more formality than family visits.
3. High job satisfaction has been found to reduce depression and to improve health.
4. A small hallway leads from the verandah to a drawing room, a sitting room and a dining room.
5. Running a recording studio involves general management, bookings, administration, engineering and maintenance.
6. Most colonial buildings were not built by unskilled labourers using trial and error methods, but by master craftsmen using known and regulated techniques.
7. Most people value flexibility, life options and job satisfaction.
8. World agricultural production could be greatly increased, but there are economic, social and educational obstacles.
9. The creek was littered with plastic bags, broken bottles and shopping trolleys.
10. The hotel had large, tastefully furnished rooms.

ANSWERS

Chapter 11: Capitalisation and punctuation

EXERCISE 1

1. Coogee, south of Bronte and Clovelly, was a favourite of Roberts, Streeton and Conder.
2. Bullying, peer violence involving intimidation of smaller weaker or different people, occurs most often in school, at home and in the neighbourhood.
3. Almost all reports of nineteenth century fur sealers describe them as rough, violent, drunken and brutal.
4. Friendship involves mutual respect, esteem and affection.
5. The proportion of households headed by a single adult, usually the mother, has increased sharply.
6. Demography is a science concerned with the analysis of the size, distribution, structure, characteristics and processes of a population.
7. Clouds consist of minute water droplets, ice crystals or a mixture of both.
8. John Stuart Mill, the English political philosopher and economist, was one of the leading intellectuals of his time.
9. Social behaviour in animals is related to basic biological needs for food, shelter, defence against predators, reproduction and care of their young.
10. Osteoporosis, diabetes and multiple sclerosis are all degenerative diseases.

EXERCISE 2

1. Many animals, including humans, store fat under the skin.
2. The size of a town influences the types of services it can provide and the nature of the demand for retail activities, library services, schools, housing, community services and economic infrastructure.
3. The current building, completed in 1547, stands on the site of the original church.
4. By the late 1980s, the vehemence of the debate had begun to ebb.
5. The company's founder, Robert Gordon, was born at Parramatta on 23 June 1903.
6. Avocados, asparagus, melons, beans, fresh dates, strawberries and lychees are air-freighted from gardens in the tropics to the tables of affluent westerners.

7. Human populations, like all living things, have the potential to grow at an exponential rate.
8. The United States, where the first oil well was drilled in 1859, was for a time the world's leading oil producer, but its reserves have dwindled.
9. Very little research, however, has assessed the relative significance of these contradictory theories.
10. Land clearing destroys, or at least injures, flora and fauna.

ANSWERS

Chapter 12: Word use and word choice

EXERCISE 1

1. We (**compare** / contrast) similarities and (compare / **contrast**) differences.
2. Local journalists interviewed the (emigrants / **immigrants**) on their arrival in Perth.
3. They thought the entrée was tastier (then / **than**) the main course.
4. When complaining to the manager, the customer (**implied** / inferred) that the wine was unsatisfactory.
5. One would have to be very (credible / **credulous**) to believe that the Sydney Harbour Bridge is the first prize in a lottery.
6. The length of the required article was not made (implicit / **explicit**) in the editor's letter, which was, in general, vague on other matters as well.
7. The two candidates had a (common / **mutual**) respect for each other.
8. Marcus tried hard not to (elude / **allude**) to the accident that Delores had suffered.
9. The Mona Lisa dressed in sunglasses is an (acronym / **anachronism**).
10. She was badly (effected / **affected**) by her parents' sudden decision to send her to a remote boarding school.

EXERCISE 2

1. The problem (lays / **lies**) with people's hidden assumptions.
2. The availability of family leave (**affects** / effects) men as well as women.
3. The long-term unemployed (maybe / **may be**) subject to high rates of stress-induced health problems.
4. Until about 1730, farming (**practices** / practises) in England had changed little from those in the Middle Ages.
5. The protestors, who were chanting slogans and waving placards, (aggravated / **irritated**) the Minister.
6. The opinion poll revealed that most students were (disinterested / **uninterested**) in Asian politics.
7. The ending of the film was barely (credulous / **credible**).
8. Most of the audience did not recognise the senator's (**allusions** / illusions) to Cicero.

9. The new regulations are designed to (**complement** / compliment) those that currently apply.
10. His objection to the motion was (**altogether** / all together) frivolous.

EXERCISE 3

1. The graduation speech was delivered by an (imminent / **eminent**) scientist.
2. They swam twenty laps of the pool; (than / **then**), they went to the pizza parlour.
3. The visitors (past / **passed**) several kangaroos on the trip to Adelaide.
4. The class was (suppose / **supposed**) to have read the textbook before the seminar.
5. The company appointed an agent (who's / **whose**) reliability had been recommended to them.
6. Theists believe that a (conscious / **conscience**) is the voice of God.
7. Radar has become a tool of weather forecasting ever since (it's / **its**) first meteorological application.
8. Because the Mongols lived in poorly-ventilated tents, had little water supply and rarely (use / **used**) to wash their clothes and bodies, they were susceptible to epidemic diseases.
9. It is hard to (loose / **lose**) what one never possessed.
10. When the players were (already / **all ready**), they left for the station, only to find that the train had (all ready / **already**) departed.

INDEX

absolute adjectives and adverbs 210
active voice 127
adjectives 15-18
adjectives in parallel 164
adverbs 39-41
adverbs in parallel 164
agreement, subject-verb 43-49
'and' run-on 101
antecedent, ambiguous 159
antecedent, missing 159
antecedent, pronoun 139,149-151, 158
antecedent, repetitious 159
anticlimax, avoiding 168-169
apostrophe 187-188
appositive phrases 35
articles 14
articles in parallel 165
auxiliary verb 37-39, 44-45

brainstorming the essay topic 268

capitalisation 179-181
cause and effect 247-250
chronological order 232-234
classification and division 239-240
clauses, dependent 83-85
clauses, independent 65, 83-85
clauses, non-restrictive 92-94
clauses, restrictive 93-94
cliché 206
collective nouns 46-47
colon 186
comma 181-182
comma splice run-on 102-103
comparative adjectives 15-16
comparison and contrast paragraphs 242-244
comparisons (using pronouns) 146-148
complex sentences 83-94
compound sentences 65-81

conjunctions, adverbial 71-72
conjunctions, coordinating 66-67
conjunctions, subordinating, 83-85
contractions, contracted words 29, 209
correcting number errors 149-151
count and non-count nouns 8-9

deductive and inductive reasoning 252-255
definition of a paragraph 223-224
definition paragraphs 240-242
demonstrative pronouns 10
description paragraphs 234-237
differ from/differ to 212
different from/different to 212
direct quotation 215-218
drafting an essay 273-277

easily confused words 191-204
essay checklist 278-279
essay plan 270-273
example and illustration 234
explanation (process) paragraphs 237-239

formal essay defined 263
fragments 53-54, 99-100
full stop 181
'fused' run-on 102

gerund 60
gerund phrase 60
gerunds in parallel 165

however 79-80

imperative mood 136
indefinite pronouns 10
indicative mood 135
indirect quotation 218-219
infinitive form of the verb 107
infinitives in parallel 164
instructional words 265-267

- intensifiers 210-211
- jargon 207
- logical fallacies 255-262
 - ad hominem 256
 - anecdotal evidence 262
 - appeal to inappropriate authority 260
 - appeal to the people 260
 - argument by analogy 261
 - argument from ignorance 260
 - begging the question 257
 - emotionally charged language 256
 - factual error 255
 - false dilemma 258
 - irrelevance 261
 - outdated/inappropriate sources 256
 - oversimplification 258
 - non-sequitur 259
 - post hoc ergo propter hoc 259
 - slippery slope 262
 - sweeping assertion 256
 - vicious circle 257
- missing antecedent 149
- modal auxiliary verbs 45-46
- modification 176-179
- mood, verb 135-138
- non-restrictive clauses 92-94
- nouns 8
 - nouns, collective 46-47
 - nouns, unusual 49
 - nouns in parallel 163-164
- numerals 189-190
- over-used expressions 205
- paragraph, argumentative 250-252
- paragraph, classifying 239-240
- paragraph, cause & effect 247-250
- paragraph, comparison & contrast 242-244

paragraph, definition 240-242
paragraph, definition of 223-224
paragraph, description 234-237
paragraph, explanation 237-239
paragraph, narrative 232-234
paragraph structure 223-255
parallel construction 163-166
paraphrasing 219
participle, past form (-ed) 112, 114-116
participle, present form (-ing) 111, 113, 116-118
participles in parallel 165
participial phrase 59, 133-135
passive voice 127-128
past tense, simple 23, 133-135
personal pronouns 9
phrase, gerund 60
phrase, infinitive 58-59
phrase, noun, 58-59
phrase, participial, 59, 133-135
phrase, prepositional 29-32, 58
phrase, verb 58
phrases 58-60
phrase, appositive 35
possessive pronouns 9-10, 140
possessive pronouns as adjectives 17
prepositional phrase 29-30, 58
preposition, common 31
prepositions in parallel 165
pronouns 9, 139-161
pronoun-antecedent agreement 149-151, 158
pronoun case 140-142
pronouns, reflexive 142-143
pronouns, relative 91-92
proper nouns 8
punctuation 181-189

quotation, direct 215-218
quotation, indirect 218-219

reflexive pronouns 142-143
relative pronouns 91-92

researching and notetaking 268-270
restrictive clauses 92-94
revising the essay draft 276-277
revising non-parallel sentences 166-167
run-on sentences 101-103

semicolon 187
sentences beginning with 'A number' or 'The number' 49
sentences beginning with a present participial phrase 63
sentences beginning with 'because' 90
sentences beginning with 'there is/are/were' 37
sentences, complex 83-94
sentences, compound 65-81
sentences, fused 102
sentences, run-on 101-103
sentences, simple 7-42
subjects of sentences 7-18, 29-37
subjunctive mood 136-138
superlative adjectives 15-16
semicolon used in coordination 71-72, 187
subject-verb agreement 43-49
subordinating conjunctions 83-85
summarising 219

tautology 208-209
tense, verb 23, 38-39, 43-45, 108-118
'than' and 'then' 203
topic sentence and controlling idea 225-228
transitions between sentences 230-231, 232, 234, 236, 238, 241, 243, 249

useful words for introducing quotations 220

verb 22-23, 37-39, 107-138
verb groups 37-39
verb, auxiliary 37-39, 44-45
verb, modal auxiliary 45-46

verb, regular 43, 108-118
verb, irregular 44, 120-124
verb tense 23, 38-39, 43-45, 108-118
verbs in parallel 164
voice, active 127-128
voice, passive 127-128

who, whom, whose 144-145
words that cause problems 210



CORRECTION SYMBOLS

Word level errors

abbr	Abbreviation: spell out the word in full
apos	Missing or misused apostrophe
cap	Capital letter needed
sp	Spelling error
vb	Verb error (wrong tense, tense shift, wrong form)
wc	Word choice
wordy	Unnecessary words
ww	Wrong word
wf	Incorrect word form
/	A word, letter or punctuation mark is to be deleted
^	A word or words are missing
~	A word or words should be reverse or transposed
∂	A word is to be deleted
⊂	Two words (or parts of a word) should be joined

Sentence level errors

agr	Incorrect subject-verb agreement OR incorrect pronoun-antecedent agreement
frag (or NAS)	Not a sentence
punc	Punctuation is missing or incorrect
run	Run-on sentence
coord	Clauses incorrectly joined for coordination
sub	Clauses incorrectly joined for subordination
//	Faulty parallelism

