ROD CAMPBELL

GRAMMAR SKILLS HANDBOOK

Mastering Grammar and Punctuation

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About this book

Welcome to this handbook, designed to help you to develop the knowledge and skills to improve your grammar and punctuation. Of course, ChatGPT, Grammarly, other grammar check programs and predicted spelling can help, but these programs are limited to the formulas and algorithms of the program writers. AI, of course, is developing ways to alter algorithms. Yet your own knowledge, and what you learn about English and writing it, will determine the quality, style and voice of your own creativity.

Knowing how written English works is at the mind and heart of writing and reading. What is particularly useful in knowing the grammar of English is how ***the patterns of language*** create the foundation for communication. ***Phrases***, ***clauses*** and ***groups*** are the patterns in which words function to create the structure and meaning of communication. These patterns are the first layer of grammar knowledge and are explored in Chapters 1, 4 and 5.

The ***parts of speech*** are the second layer of grammar. There are two sets of parts of speech: open-class words and closed-class words; and the information is provided in detail in Chapters 2 and 3.

Writers must use punctuation to mark the boundaries of meaning that are carried by intonation in spoken language. The essential element of written language is that well-marked larger pattern called the sentence. The best definition of a sentence is that it has a capital letter and a full stop. Chapters 5 and 6 present all you need to know about punctuation and how it is used in various types of sentences.

Rod Campbell

“Words were all very well, but with nothing more than words one was forever a child, piping out the names of things. Grammar was the gearing that made them useful.”

~ Kate Grenville, *The Lieutenant* (2008)

CHAPTER 1

The patterns of English language

Sentences

The English sentence is marked in writing by punctuation boundary markers such as a capital letter at the beginning and a full stop (or question mark or exclamation mark) at the end.

Sentences can be **statements** or **declarations**, **questions**, **exclamations** or **commands**. Speakers will often use sentences of one word *(Really!)* and one phrase *(At dawn?)*. These very short sentences are used sparingly, and only for effect and style, particularly in dialogue.

Sentences can vary in length and in the number of clauses. Clauses and phrases are features of both spoken and written English.

A sentence that has only one clause is known as a **simple sentence**. For example:

> The smaller **children** *watch television.*
>
> The old **man** *walks to the shop at midday.*

The **subject** or topic is in bold type in each sentence or clause and tells the reader what the sentence is about. The rest of the sentence provides the ***predicate*** *(in italics)*, the comment on the subject or topic, starting with the verb (underlined). A further feature has been added to the topic by using the qualifying words *smaller* and *old*. Nouns and noun groups can be used after the verb as well: for example, *television*. There are also qualifying statements as phrases that provide further information: *at midday*, and *to the shop*.

Clauses can be combined with each other so that a number of topics and their comments can be combined in the one sentence.

A complex sentence has two or more clauses. One of the clauses is known as the independent clause, the clause that can stand on its own, i.e. the children went to the beach (in bold below).

> ***If*** there was a good break, **the children would go to the beach** ***so that*** they could ride some waves ***before*** they had to go to school.

The other clauses are **dependent clauses**; they cannot make sense if used on their own and therefore depend upon the independent clause to complete the sense of the sentences. The dependent clause begins with a conjunction (three in the sentence above, marked in bold italics), a word that joins the dependent clause to the independent clause. In complex sentences, these conjunctions are known as subordinate conjunctions. The use of subordinate conjunctions to introduce dependent clauses brings a power relationship to the clauses in the complex sentence. As a general principle, more powerful writing makes effective use of complex sentences in the mix of sentences used in a text.

A compound sentence also has two or more clauses, but in this sentence all the clauses are independent. The second or third independent clauses are joined to the first independent clause by coordinating conjunctions (in bold italics below). The theory is that coordinating conjunctions introduce clauses that have equal power, not a less powerful or dependent relationship with the independent clause.

> The children went to the beach ***and*** had a great surf, ***but*** their parents were worried.

We will return to more work on sentences after the next few chapters on clauses, phrases and noun groups. However, for the benefit of those of us who like definitions, here is the definition repeated: A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (or another boundary marker such as a question mark or exclamation mark). That is, the sentence is a feature of written language and functions within written texts. The 'rough' equivalent of the sentence in spoken language is the utterance. However, phrases, clauses and noun groups are common to both spoken and written language.

We will also return to the teaching of sentences in a later chapter on sentence variety.

Phrases

A phrase is any group or pattern of words that does not contain a verb. Some examples of phrases are:

> *in the street, on the ball, after dark, up the creek*
>
> (These are prepositional phrases, as they begin with a preposition.)

In earlier forms of traditional grammar, the expression *the green car* was called an adjectival phrase, with the emphasis upon the adjective *green*. Other traditional grammar theories called *the green car* a noun phrase, with the emphasis upon the noun *car*.

This approach to defining a phrase by virtue of a particular part of speech has some obvious limitations with its focus more upon the form rather than the function of the pattern. The work of Michael Halliday (1985), Dennis Freeborn (1995) and others has provided teachers with a more practical way to discuss and teach the patterns of English. This functional approach places greater emphasis upon the noun, and the functions of language created by the use of adjectives.

At this point, it is necessary to point out that functional grammar theories incorporate most elements of traditional grammar theories. That is, all theories of linguistics share the traditional terms, the terms which are presented in this book.

Noun groups

A noun group is any group of words that contain a noun. In the prepositional phrases above, the noun group is inside the prepositional phrase, for example, *in the street* (prepositional phrase), *the street* (noun group). In adjectival phrases, the noun is the more important word, so it is preferable to teach the adjectival phrase within the scope and term of the noun group.

A noun group can be one word or contain as many words, phrases, dependent clauses and other noun groups as the writer chooses, as long clarity is not lost. For example:

> **Fruit** *is good for you.*
>
> (the noun *fruit* as only word; a one-word noun group)
>
> **Stone fruits** *are better for you.*
>
> (noun group consists of two words)
>
> **Stone fruits that are ripe and fresh** *are the best for you.*
>
> (dependent adjectival clause adds more information into the noun group)
>
> **Stone fruits that are grown in the rich soils of the irrigated fields and (that are) picked before the sun is too hot** *are really the best for you.*
>
> (two parallel adjectival clauses included in the noun group)

The noun group is important because as much information as the writer wants can be packed into phrases and clauses within the noun group; but the main noun, the subject or topic of the sentence or utterance is always kept in mind. In each of the four instances above, the main noun or subject is *fruit* or *fruits*.

Clauses

Clauses are groups of words that contain a verb. Often a clause is introduced by a conjunction.

There are two major types of clauses: independent and dependent. A special type of dependent clause is the adjectival clause (called relative clause in the US and in systemic functional grammar). There are also incomplete clauses and complete clauses. An incomplete clause has an incomplete verb.

Independent clauses and coordinating conjunctions

An independent clause is one that can stand independently. The test for independence is to ask if the clause statement can make sense without the need for further information. The following clauses are independent:

Mary and John went to the city.

They caught the train.

They were able to go to the movies.

Independent clauses can be joined together by using coordinating conjunctions: *and, but, or, nor, so, for, yet*. (See Conjunctions in Chapter 3.)

Mary and John caught the early train, and they went to the city. They went to the movies, but Mary did not like the show.

Note: An independent clause is also a complete clause because the verb in the clause is a complete (finite) verb.

Read the sentences below. Note the use of the **coordinating conjunctions** *and, but* and *or*:

The **car** *is in the garage,* ***and*** *the* **petrol tank** *is empty.*

The **car** *is in the garage,* ***but*** *the* **tyre** *is flat.*

The **car** *is in the garage,* ***or*** **John** *is driving it.*

You will notice that:

- The coordinating conjunctions join the two clauses.
- On each side of the conjunctions there is a subject and predicate (each clause has a subject and predicate). The subjects are in bold print.
- Each clause can be written independently of the other.
- The coordinating conjunction is used to join two sentences or clauses that can stand independently of each other.
- The conjunctions create new meanings in the relationship of one clause to the other. (See Coordinating Conjunctions in Chapter 3.)

Dependent clauses and subordinating conjunctions

Dependent clauses cannot stand on their own. They need to be with an independent clause to gain meaning. Complete dependent clauses begin with a subordinating conjunction. (Many of these clauses are also known as subordinate clauses; and are also known as adverbial clauses, since these clauses function grammatically as adverbs.)

Sentences containing dependent clauses are called complex sentences. The subjects for each clause are shown in bold:

He *had an accident* ***because*** **he** *had driven too fast.*

The **children** *went to the party* ***where*** **they** *had a good time.*

They *stayed at the beach* ***until*** *the* **sun** *went down.*

More information about patterns of language, and learning these patterns, will be presented in Chapters 4 and 5. The parts of speech need to be understood before embarking upon teaching their uses and functions in the patterns of language (syntactic patterns).

CHAPTER 2

Vocabulary parts of speech

nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs

The vocabulary parts of speech are also known as the 'open class' parts of speech because more of these words can be added. New nouns and verbs are added into English every day, and every year, various dictionaries announce the lists of new words in English.

Nouns

Nouns are words that are the names or titles of a thing, place, person, idea and feeling. Nouns are classified differently from one text to another, but the classification system below is usually followed. Nouns also have features such as number and gender.

- **Proper nouns:** *Graham, Sydney, Monday, October, Australia; names of people, places, days and months* (usually written with a capital letter).
- **Common nouns:** *dog, chair, person, car.*
- **Concrete nouns:** *earth, rock, soil, water* (tangible).
- **Abstract nouns:** *fear, happiness, danger* (concepts, ideas and feelings).
- **Collective nouns:** *crew, team, herd, congregation* (groups of things). There are subcategories of collective nouns:

  specific: *army, class, club, committee, crew, gang*

  generic: *the public, the clergy, the media*

  unique: *the Commonwealth of Australia, the United Nations*

  mass: *food, furniture, ammunition, information, knowledge, trash* (mass nouns have no plural form)

  measure: *a loaf of bread, litres of milk, a piece of information*

Nouns and number

Nouns are also inflected (i.e. changed) to show that one or more than one item is being talked or written about. Plural nouns will usually have an 's' added to the noun (for example, *trees*, *the trees*, *many trees*), while singular nouns do not add an 's' (for example, *tree*, *a tree*, *the tree*).

However, there are a number of words in English that do not follow the general rule of adding 's' or 'es' to the singular *(tree + s = trees; gas + es = gases)*.

1. The first group are words from Old English: *man, woman, child, tooth, foot, goose, mouse, louse, ox → men, women, children, teeth, feet, geese, mice, lice, oxen*
2. There are words that do not have a plural form: *sheep, moose, shrimp*
3. The third group of words come mainly from Latin and Greek, and most keep the plural of the original language. In the list of words below, some have two choices of plural; in these instances, both plurals are correct, but the first stated is preferred. Always consult your dictionary for the preferred form of the plural.
    a. *analysis, axis, basis, diagnosis, oasis, thesis → analyses, axes, bases, diagnoses, oasis, theses*
    b. *phenomenon → phenomena; criterion → criteria*
    c. *index → indexes/indices; appendix → appendixes/appendices*
    d. *cactus → cactuses/cacti; octopus → octopuses/octopi; syllabus → syllabuses/syllabi* (scientists use the second plural form)
    e. *datum → data; medium → mediums/media*
    f. *phalanx → phalanges*
    g. *antenna → antennae*

4. The fourth group of plurals are from other languages:
    a. *plateau* → *plateaux/plateaus* (French)
    b. *graffito* → *graffiti* (Italian; but in English, *graffiti* is both singular and plural)
    c. *concerto* → *concertos; concerti* (Italian)
    d. *cherub* → *cherubim; seraph* → *seraphim* (both Hebrew)

Nouns and gender

Although contemporary English does not rely upon words that discriminate women, it is still useful to know feminine and masculine nouns, which you will meet in your reading. Feminine forms of words formed by adding *-ess (actress)* and *-trix (aviatrix)* are no longer used in general language use. (The use of 'actress' at the Oscar, Emmy and BAFTA awards is an example of the specific use of feminine forms of nouns. The original masculine forms (*actor, aviator, steward, waiter* and *priest*) are now used for both genders.

Other categories of nouns

Some nouns look like verbs; that is, the noun has the form of a verb, but its function is that of a noun. In the example below, *swimming* is a thing, the name of an activity:

***Swimming** is forbidden.*

Swimming is the participial form of the verb *swim* (plus, the verb form used as a noun has the special name or part of speech: gerund.)

Verbs

Verbs are often known as 'doing words', but verbs are also 'being words' *(is, am, were)* and 'having words'. The verb expresses the action that is being performed; it is needed in a clause. Verbs are classified in a number of ways according to function: **tense**, **voice** and **mood**. Verbs may also be classified in other ways, such as whether they are ***transitive*** or ***intransitive***, and ***regular*** or ***irregular***.

Verbs take **participial** forms in present and past tense and have an **infinitive** form. The present participle (for example, *swimming*) and the infinitive (for example, *to swim*) are incomplete forms of verbs. The present participle will always need an auxiliary or helping verb to make it a complete verb.

Tense

The tense of the verb shows one or more of a number of functions. Tense is often said to refer to time. The tense used is an indication of the present *(I write)*, past *(I wrote)* and future *(I will write)*. This description is only partly true. Tense is also used to indicate continuation and/or completion. For example:

The girl wanted to go to the dance. (And maybe still wants to.)

The verb *wanted* is in the past tense, but within the meaning of the expression can refer to an event that is yet to occur.

The common tenses of the verb are shown in the following:

I said that he will want that car. He says it all the time.

past tense future tense present tense

There are a number of other tenses such as perfect, past perfect, and the continuous past, present and future tenses. Some of these tenses involve the use of participles:

I am going to the place where they had gone.

present participle past participle

Note: There are other tenses:

perfect *(has gone)*, past perfect *(had gone)*

And the continuous tenses:

present continuous: *am/is/are going*

past continuous: *was/were going*

future continuous: *will be going*

The infinitive form of the verb is always shown with 'to' in front of the verb. For example, *to strive*, *to seek*, *to fine* (and not) *to yield*.

I want	*to stay*
present tense	infinitive form

Voice: active and passive

This function of verbs is concerned with the relationship between the verb and its subject and object. For example, we can write:

The dog bit the man. (active voice)

The man was bitten by the dog. (passive voice)

These sentences clearly have the same meaning: *The dog bit the man.* The same thing can be said using the passive voice, where the subject and object change position. That is, the subject moves into the predicate and is part of the predicate, while the object becomes the subject. There is, in this example, a change in the verb from past tense to the use of *was* together with the past participle *bitten*.

For example:

I ran the mile distance. (active voice)
The mile distance was run by me. (passive voice)

Note: Proponents of plain English state that all writing should use active voice. But there are instances when writers choose passive voice:

The children played active and noisy games at the party.
The loud noise was not appreciated by their parents.

Is there a slight difference, a subtle nuance, in meaning and intended meaning by using passive voice instead of active voice?

The parents did not appreciate the loud noise.

Mood

The term mood is used to indicate the varieties of expression that reflect manner or intent carried by the verb in the clause. There are four verb moods:

Indicative/declarative: *The lady went to the shops.* (statement)
Interrogative: *Did the lady go to the shops?* (question)
Imperative: *Go to the shops!* (order/command)
Subjunctive: *I would have gone if I had the time.* (wish)

Declarative mood: a statement or declaration, an indication
Interrogative mood: a question
Imperative mood: an order or command (like an emperor)
Subjunctive mood: expresses a wish, a possibility; imagining

There are specific words that indicate the subjunctive or wish mood. These words are known as modal auxiliaries: *can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must.*

Note: The use of *will* and *shall* in the future tense does not necessarily show the subjunctive mood, but usually expresses the indicative mood. There is an old-style way of stating the wish, and that is to use the plural form as a wish.

If it is my choice, I will say yes. (declarative/statement)
If it were my choice, I would say yes. (subjunctive)

Transitive and intransitive verbs

Transitive verbs take a direct object:

I read the book. (*book* is the direct object)

Intransitive verbs take an indirect object:

Susan smiled at me. (indirect object indicated by preposition *at*)

Struggle is an intransitive verb that can never take a direct object. We cannot *struggle* something; *struggle* must always be followed by a preposition, in this example, *with*:

*They had to struggle **with** their opponent.*

Clauses can incorporate transitive verbs that take both a direct and an indirect object:

I gave the book (direct object) *to her*. (indirect object)
I gave (to) her (indirect object) *the book*. (direct object)

Note: There are instances of intransitive verbs taking a direct object; for example, *She smiled bouquets.* (This may have something to do with the fact that users of English bend the 'rules' according to dialect or style or both.)

English dictionaries show whether particular verbs are transitive or intransitive (or both), by showing *vt* or *vi* at the beginning of the entry for the word.

Regular and irregular verbs

Most verbs change form according to some general rule. For example, the change into participial forms is made by adding *-ing* (present participle), and *-ed* (past participle), as in the following regular (or weak) verbs:

verb	present participle	past participle	past tense
walk	walking	walked	walked
depend	depending	depended	depended
receive	receiving	received	received

There are a number of irregular verbs which do not follow the rule above and are known as irregular verbs:

verb	present participle	past participle	past tense
give	giving	given	gave
do	doing	done	did
see	seeing	seen	saw
have	having	had	had
is/am/are	being	been	was/were
		(used with helping verb)	

Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliary verbs are also known as helping verbs. They function to complete the verb. For example, participles on their own are not complete verbs. Consider this sentence:

The people climbing the hill. → The people were climbing the hill.

The verb *climbing* needs a helping verb to make it a complete verb: *were climbing*.

Helping verbs are drawn from the two verbs *to be* and *to have*, what are known as *being verbs* and *having verbs*. Note that these verbs are used as complete verbs in their own right:

> *Today* ***is*** *my birthday. I* ***am*** *15. I* ***have*** *lots of friends who* **are** *wonderful.*

The helping verbs are also used to help other verbs:

> *I* ***am going*** *to lunch and* ***will be driving*** *an old car that* ***has seen*** *better days.*

Here is a list of the helping verbs: *am, is, was, are, were, be, being, has, have, had, having, will.*

Modal verbs

Modal verbs are used to bring a wish, an obligation, a possibility to the use of a verb. The full list is: *may, can, might, would, could, should, must, will.*

> *I* ***might be persuaded to go*** *with you but only if you really think we* ***should attend*** *and* ***would not upset*** *somebody.*

Note: The sentence above uses too many modal verbs. What message is that writer sending by overuse of modals or wish?

Verb groups

A verb group is the verb in the clause, whether the one clause in a simple sentence, or each of the clauses in complex and compound sentences.

The verb group in a clause can be one word ***(I am 15)***, or all the words that contribute to completing a verb ***(might be persuaded to go)***.

Adjectives

Adjectives are used to describe, add detail and give finer meaning to the noun. There are many types of adjectives, and it is not possible to say that a word is an adjective by looking at it in isolation from the words that surround it. There are a few suffixes, such as *-ful, -less* and *-ous* that give a clue to identifying adjectives: *beautiful, careless, dangerous*. However, the function rather than its form determines an adjective.

Adjectives are classified according to function:

1. **Descriptive adjectives** are used to state some quality of the noun:

   *a **friendly** dog, an **interesting** book, an **old** person*

2. **Quantitative adjectives** tell how much: *half, daily, weekly, fourfold, full, whole, part, little, much, any, some, no, enough, all, sufficient.*

   ***some** person, **much** happiness, **little** joy*

3. **Multiple adjectives** state quantity or number: *double, triple, dozen, few, numerous, several, some, many.*

   ***some** people, **several** landmarks, a **dozen** eggs*

4. **Numerical adjectives** are numbers, both cardinal and ordinal:

   one, first, twenty, thirty-second

5. **Demonstrative adjectives** show which noun is being referred to: *this, that, these, those.*

   ***this** hat, **those** wigs*

6. **Distributive adjectives** are used with nouns that can be referred to separately or in groups: *each, neither, either, only.*

   ***each** person, **either** car, **only** person*

Inflection of adjectives

Adjectives inflect for degree: **positive**, **comparative** or **superlative**.

The comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives are usually formed by the addition of *-er* and *-est* to the positive form. In some instances, *more* and *most* are placed before the positive form. The two systems for forming the comparative and superlative forms are not used together. There are a few irregular adjectives.

The **positive degree** is the usual form of the adjective; for example, *sweet, good, beautiful*.

The **comparative degree** is used to make a comparison between two items; for example, *sweeter, better, more beautiful*. The comparative is followed by *than*:

*Honey is **sweeter than** an orange.*

The **superlative degree** is used when more than two items are compared; for example, *sweetest, best, most beautiful*. The superlative is usually followed by a preposition such as *of, among, in*:

*He is the **oldest of** the three.*

The syllable rule

Inflecting adjectives by adding *-er* and *-est* to the adjective applies to adjectives that consist of one or two syllables. If the adjective has three syllables, then *more* or *most* is placed before the adjective.

positive degree	comparative degree	superlative degree
old	older	oldest
new	newer	newest
pretty	prettier	prettiest
expensive	more expensive	most expensive
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful

There are some adjectives where the syllable rule does not apply; for example, *handsome, more handsome, most handsome*.

Note: There is a tendency in some varieties of English to use *littler* and *littlest*. You should use *smaller* and *smallest* unless there is another stylistic purpose for choosing *littler* and *littlest*. See *little* in the table below.

Irregular adjectives

The adjectives in the table below do not follow:

positive degree	comparative degree	superlative degree
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least
many	more	most
much	more	most

Order of adjectives

There is an accepted order for two or more adjectives placed before a noun. Those whose first language is English have no difficulty with ordering the following:

Scottish, cold, three, players into *three cold Scottish players*.

Generally, the 'rule' is: number first, then place the adjectives in sequence from the more general to the more specific attribute.

Adjectives ending in *-ing*

The *-ing* form of the verb (present participle) can also function as an adjective. For example, smiling people, trying times, energising spirit, drinking mug. (For your interest, the *-ive* form of the verb, the present participle, when functioning as an adjective is called a gerundive.)

Most importantly, remember that adjectives are used with nouns and other adjectives and adverbs. Even when writers and speakers use an adjective on its own, it is paired with a noun provided earlier in the text.

Simile

When an adjective is added to a noun, it describes that word more fully. You can also describe something in terms of what it is like and introduce simile to your writing and speaking. The use of simile enhances the image a writer tries to create in words and is often more effective than using adjectives. A judicious use of adjectives and simile can be useful:

The old car drove like a tortoise on a galactic superhighway.

Adverbs

Adverbs are words that describe or give further information about verbs, adjectives and other adverbs, qualifiers or modifiers. The adverb functions in relation to the verb in much the same way that the adjective functions in relation to the noun.

Adverbs function by telling us **how**, something is done, **when** it is done, **where** it is done and **why** it is done. For example:

The lions ate their prey ***greedily*** *in the afternoon*
how when
under the trees for nourishment.
where why

(There are two adverbs and two adverbial phrases.)

The sentences below show how adverbs modify verbs, other adverbs and adjectives:

1. *She drives **fast**.* (adverb)
2. *He drives **very slowly**.* (adverb adverb)
3. *They drive **very** old cars.* (adverb adjective)

The most common ending for adverbs is *-ly*, a suffix from Old English that means *like*. Adverbs can be formed from almost all adjectives by adding *-ly*, as in *anxiously, beautifully* and *easily*.

However, there are a few adverbs that do not end in *-ly*: *fast, soon, more, less, now, then, here, there, far, near, often, never, seldom*.

There are some adjectives that cannot take an *-ly* ending to make an adverb: *best, little, fast*.

The words *deep, long, hard, fast, early* and *longer* are examples of words that can function both as adjectives and adverbs. The function of the word determines what part of speech it is. However, it is easier to think of adjectives and adverbs as acting as qualifiers, and not to attempt to classify each item unnecessarily.

Finally, not all words that end in *-ly* are adverbs, either. *Homely, timely, manly* and *lovely* are words that end in *-ly* and which are used as adjectives; for example, ***timely** arrival*, ***lovely** building*.

Degree of adverbs

Adverbs are inflected to provide the two degrees of comparison and superlative.

The general rule for comparison of adverbs is to use the word *more* as a qualifier before the adverb; for example, ***more** quickly*.

There are few opportunities for using the superlative form of adverbs, although some speakers will say that *a job was finished **most** quickly* and ***most** economically*.

Finding adverbs

Use a dictionary to find adverbs. All possible adverbs ending in *-ly* are rarely listed in dictionaries in bold as the first item in a word entry. You find an adverb by locating the adjective and adding *-ly*.

Spelling adverbs

1. If the adjective ends in *-le*, drop the *e* and add *-y*:

   reasonable → reasonably

2. If the adjective ends in *e*, keep the e and add *-ly*:

   polite→ politely

3. If the adjective ends in *y*, change *y* to *i* and add *-ly*:

   canny → cannily

CHAPTER 3

Closed class parts of speech

conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns and determiners

This chapter explains and explores the knowledge and use of the closed class or grammatical parts of speech. The term 'closed class' means that no new words are added to these four parts of speech. They are also known as the **grammatical** or **functional** parts of speech because they set up the syntax, the grammatical structures that form the patterns of English.

Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words that function to join one clause to another. **Coordinating** conjunctions are used to join two or more independent clauses; **subordinating** conjunctions are used to join dependent clauses to another clause. (See Chapters 1 and 5.) The notional definition of conjunction is ***joining words***.

Coordinating conjunctions	Relationship (logic)
and	additive
but	adversative
or	alternative
yet	limiting
so	consequence
for	causative
nor	negative

Coordinating conjunctions are used when two clauses of equal status are coordinated into a compound sentence.

Conjunctions also establish logical relationships between clauses. For example, the subordinating conjunction *because* functions as reason.

Subordinating conjunctions	Relationship
because, as, since	cause/effect
when, as, while, before, after, until	time
as soon as, since	time
if, unless, whether	condition
in order that, so that	purpose, reason
though, although, however	limiting
where, wherever	place

Subordinating conjunctions are used to show a dependent, an unequal or subordinate status in relation to the main or independent clause.

*The children went to the beach **because** they wanted to see the tropical sunset.*

*The children went to the beach **while** it was raining.*

*The children went to the beach **though** it was shark-infested.*

*The children went to the beach **as soon as** the rain stopped.*

*The children went to the beach **so that** they could have a swim.*

*The children went to the beach **as** their motorbikes were being fixed.*

*The children went to the beach **since** they brought their surfboards.*

*The children went to the beach **although** it was pouring with rain and cloudy.*

*The children went to the beach **if** they were good.*

*The children went to the beach **where** they enjoyed the sand, sun and surfing.*

*The children went to the beach **after** they had finished their breakfast.*

*The children went to the beach **unless** it was raining heavily.*

*The children went to the beach **whether** the weather was good or bad.*

For your information, the conjunctions in the sentences above are in the table below, with the logic provided by each conjunction. For example, ***while*** = *time*.

conjunction	logical relationship	conjunction	logical relationship
because	reason	although	limiting
while	time	if	condition
though	limiting	so that	purpose
as soon as	time	where	place
so that	purpose, reason	after	time
as	time	unless	condition
since	reason	whether	condition

Correlative conjunctions

These are conjunctions which pair together to show closer links or relationships between ideas. The most common are:

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

Correlative conjunctions should be used so that each part of the correlative conjunction is retained. For example:

Whether he decides to go, or she decides to stay, I am leaving.

Either parents or teachers may enter, but not both.

Prepositions

Prepositions are parts of speech that show logical relationship expressed in terms of position in time and space. For example: *The dog carried the bone **at** night **to** the corner of the room **without** a fuss.* The notional definition of a prepositional word is **position word**.

Prepositions may be used in prepositional phrases (***over** the moon*, ***under** the sun*, ***before** noon*) as circumstances in the clause, or may be used after some verbs to make a prepositional phrase or phrasal verb (*take **out**, take **in**, take **off***).

There are a limited number of prepositions in English, but they are pervasive.

Prepositions can be arranged as follows:

Prepositions: place

in out into inside outside on off onto upon to from up down of by over under above below with without within beside beneath before behind beyond at near past after along around across against through throughout amid among between for except

Prepositions: time

before	*during*	*after*
since	*till*	*at*
by	*per*	*until*

Prepositions: phrase form

next to	*in front of*	*in spite of*
out of	*according to*	*in regard to*
because of	*with respect to*	*in reference to*

To the kitchen
For my breakfast
Out the door
Through the gate
Along the road
To school
Another day

Most prepositional phrases give information about time and place (when and where), and function like adverbs. Therefore, prepositional phrases that give information about time, place, manner and reason are adverbial phrases.

Note: The prepositions *of, from* and *with* usually provide information about a noun, and are adjectival phrases as they describe a noun. For example: *lions **from** Africa; horses **with** flowing manes; houses **of** timber*.

Applying knowledge of prepositional phrases

Look at the science definition below, from *The ABC of Relativity* by Bertrand Russell (1969:18) published in London by Allen & Unwin; cited in Halliday 1985:69*ff*):

> *In the Newtonian system,* bodies under the action of no forces move *in straight lines with uniform velocity.*

There is an opening statement: *In the Newtonian system*, and this means *according to the laws of gravity developed by Isaac Newton*.

The definition is about **bodies**, things that have mass, and these *bodies* **move**. The **bodies** (subject) are described as *under the action of no forces* – there is no force acting to change the direction and speed of the bodies. That is, the bodies are in a state of inertia. And because there is no force acting upon the bodies, they will continue (where) in *straight lines* (how) *at uniform velocity*; that is, they go straight ahead at the same speed.

The definition refers to planets and asteroids in space, and the force that acts on moving bodies in space is gravity, the gravitational pull that bodies exert on each other, pulling smaller bodies into orbit around larger ones. The writer of this definition shows how prepositional phrases can carry lots of information.

Pronouns

Pronouns are words that are used to **refer to** one or more words or phrases in a text. Pronouns can also refer to words in other sentences or parts of a text. The notional definition of pronoun is ***referring word***.

> *The couple owned a dog that had won many prizes.* ***They*** *took* ***it*** *to shows everywhere.*

They refers to the couple (couple is the referent for they); ***it*** refers to a dog (that had won many prizes).

The pronoun operates as one of the main forms of cohesion within and across texts by referring to words within and outside of texts.

Pronouns are the only part of speech in English **inflected** to mark:

- **number** (singular or plural)
- **gender** (masculine, feminine, neuter)
- **case** (subjective, objective, possessive)
- **reflexivity** (myself, yourselves)

Case chart of pronouns

subjective	possessive	objective	possessive	REFLEXIVE FORM
I (s)	my	me	mine	myself
we (p)	our	us	our	ourselves
you (s)	your	you	yours*	yourself
you (p)	your	you	yours*	yourselves
he (m)	his	him	his	himself
she (f)	her	her	hers*	herself
it (n)	its*	it	its*	itself
they (p)	their	them	theirs*	themselves
one	one's*	one	one's*	oneself
who	whose	whom	whose	----------

*possessive pronouns ending in 's' **never** have an apostrophe (**except** for *one's*)

(s) = singular number; (p) = plural number; (m) = masculine gender; (f) = feminine gender; (n) = neuter gender.

Note 1: Demonstrative pronouns or adjectives: *this and that, these and those* are used in much the same manner as pronouns for referring to other words and phrases:

This rose is more distinctive than those (roses over there).

Note 2: There is a special group of pronouns known as **relative pronouns**: *who, whom, whose, which, that.* Relative pronouns are used to introduce adjectival clauses. (In American grammar, adjectival clauses are also known as relative clauses.)

Pronoun substitution

Pronouns are used to substitute for words and ideas mentioned elsewhere in the sentence or paragraph.

> *Mary and John went for a picnic. They* (Mary and John) *took the dog called Rufus.*
>
> *Rufus was a fine dog. It* (or He) *had won many prizes at the local dog show.*

A problem with pronouns

In the text below, what does *He, he* and *it* (in the second sentence) refer to in the first sentence?

> *The boy spent Saturday on the boat, fishing with his father. He said that he enjoyed it.*

Note: Did you get more than one possible referent for each of those three pronouns? What you see in that second sentence is an example of poor writing. Each pronoun must have only one very clear referent. For example, ***He*** could refer to *the boy* or to *the father*; and ***it*** could refer to *fishing*, *fishing with dad*, *spending Saturday in a boat*, and so on.

Clear writing never leaves your reader having to guess what referents your pronouns refer to.

Modern considerations in using pronouns

Gender-neutral English is important, and modern writing requires that care be taken to respect this principle. The first way is to use plural nouns so that the referring pronouns are *they, them, their* and *themselves*.

When a singular noun is used for people, the required pronoun is also *they, them, their*. For example, *That person has forgotten their belongings*. Sometimes, writers can create problems for readers when the referring function of pronouns is confused by poor writing.

Here is an example of a sentence written in a daily newspaper some years ago:

> *A man was badly injured in a road accident at Bellyband Road and had to be helped by paramedics. They were taken to hospital and is in a stable condition.*

Pronouns function as referring words, and obviously the writer's determination to avoid using *he* or *she* has created the problem. Thinking about the second sentence alerts the reader to the fact that the man is in a stable condition, not the paramedics. The problem could have been avoided if the writer had realised that the gender had already been established at the beginning of the sentence: *man*. But what would have happened if the writer had said *driver*? Again, *they* is still a problem. The writer would need to use the noun again rather than use a pronoun to refer to that noun:

> *The man was taken to hospital and is in a stable condition.*
> (Or *The driver was taken to hospital and is in a stable condition.*)

There is another principle for the use of pronouns.

Inclusive language

Inclusive language is a principle whereby no person is left unacknowledged or disrespected in all social, workplace and other contexts. LGBTIQ+ people have been particularly marginalised, and society is now changing to becoming more inclusive of all people. In order to recognise and to respond appropriately, here are a few guidelines:

1. Accept how individuals define their gender and sexuality. When informed by an individual about their sexuality or gender, use the terms that individual uses to describe themselves.
2. Use language that encompasses all groups, terms such as partner, everybody, folks.
3. There are increasingly more people who wish selected pronouns to be used in reference to them. If you need to know, ask the person if you may ask which pronoun they use.
4. Keep in mind that some individuals wish their pronoun use to be specific to context and not widely used.

For more information, visit the Victorian Government's LGBTIQ+ Inclusive Language Guide at www.vic.gov.au/inclusive-language-guide.

Determiners

There are a number of parts of speech that have one function in common: they point to some other word or idea in a text and are known as **determiners** or ***pointing words***. This group of determiners includes the following items:

Articles:	*a, an, the*
Possessives:	*my, your, his, her, our, its, their*
Relatives:	*who, whom, whose, that, which*
Interrogatives:	*what, which, who, when, where, whose, how, why*
Negative:	*no*
Quantifiers:	*some, any, enough, every, each, either, neither*
Demonstratives:	*this, that, these, those*

Articles *(a, an, the)*

1. **'the'... the definite article.**

   The defines and points to which thing or article is being discussed or written about:

   The *dog is eating the bone.*

2. **'a' (an) indefinite article.**

   A/an does not define any particular thing or article, but does point to the following noun; 'a' and 'an' used to refer to the general rather than the particular:

   A *dog is eating a bone.*

   (There is an exception. *It is eating* ***a*** *bone*. Here the speaker also refers to the number of bones.)

   An is used in front of words that begin with a vowel, such as *apple, egg, igloo*. ***An*** is also used in front of some words that begin with **h**, where there is no aspiration of the initial **'h'** (sometimes called **silent 'h'**). For example, *an hour*, *an honour*. The following are examples of the aspirate or breathed 'h': *a horse, a hotel, a hippopotamus*.

Possessives *(my, your, his, her, our, its, their)*

The list consists of those pronouns that show or point to possession of something: *her cat, their dog, its meal, our information*.

Relatives *(who, whom, whose, that, which)*

Relative pronouns point back to the noun immediately before them and should be placed just after the noun that they relate to, point to or describe. For example:

The large animals ***that*** *are found in the jungle include apes, tigers and elephants. (****That*** *relates to* **animals**.*)*

These are the children ***who*** *were playing nearby.*

*This is the person **to whom** you are to give the present.*

*These are the people **whose** property was stolen.*

Note: Many people still follow a view that *who, whom* and *whose* are always used when relating or referring to people.

The relative pronoun *which* is used interchangeably in British and Australian English, and the relative pronoun *that* is used most of the time. In American English, *which* is used when relating, referring or pointing to a particular noun, and the adjectival clause has commas placed at each end. For example:

The dogs that are running wild in the bush are responsible for enormous stock losses.

*The dogs, **which are descended from animals that have escaped into the bush**, are responsible for enormous stock losses.*

In the second sentence, the dogs have been defined rather than being described generally as wild dogs, as in the first sentence. The American system is a useful one. As well, unless you have programmed your grammar check on Word to a particular English, the default set is American English. If that is the case, you will see a little green line under *which* if you have not used *which* with commas.

Interrogatives *(what, which, who, when, where, whose, how, why)*

Interrogatives are words that begin questions:

***Who** was that person?*

***Why** did she do that?*

***Where** are you going?*

Quantifiers *(some, any, enough, every, each, either, neither)*

Quantifiers point to the number or amount involved.

Some always takes a plural verb: *Some people <u>are</u> welcome.*

Any, ***each*** and ***every*** always take a singular verb:

Any person is welcome.
Each person is welcome.
Every person is welcome.

Enough, ***either*** and ***neither*** take a verb in which the number depends upon the singular or plural noun. For example, *Either that dog is a good pet or those cats are better pets*.

Demonstratives *(this, that, these, those)*

Demonstratives are used in two ways: as adjectives and as pronouns.

Demonstrative adjectives point immediately to the noun that follows: *This book, that car, these animals, those chairs*.

Demonstrative pronouns point to and refer to another word or idea in a text, and act like pronouns. Writers must be very careful when using demonstrative pronouns. For example:

There are many reasons for the increases in wild weather events in recent years. ***These*** *have been acknowledged by scientists all over the world.*

Can you see the problem? What does *These* refer or point to? *Reasons* or *events*?

Writers are aware that every time they use a demonstrative pronoun, they must check that there is a clear reference or pointing to the ideas they are writing about. In the example above, the writer solves the problem by converting the unclear demonstrative pronoun *these* to a very clear demonstrative adjective *these*.

There are many reasons for the increases in wild weather events in recent years. ***These events*** *have been acknowledged by scientists all over the world.* OR ***These reasons*** *have been acknowledged by scientists all over the world.*

CHAPTER 4

Games for understanding

The purpose of this chapter is to give you practice in choosing and using words within the various patterns of English.

Adjective-noun poems (developing vocabulary)

The following activities will require you to use a dictionary and/or thesaurus to look for adjectives needed. The difficulty level will increase as you work through the activities.

1. What is your favourite animal? Write that word as the title for a simple poem of two words per line. Write your own simple adjective-noun poem as you list 10 adjectives to describe your animal. Your poems will look like this:

   Puppies

   Playful puppies
   Cute puppies
   Naughty puppies
   Barking puppies
   Cuddly puppies
   Newborn puppies
   Biting puppies
   Beautiful puppies
   House-trained puppies
   Sleeping puppies
   I like puppies

2. Use your dictionary to find 10 adjectives that start with the same letter as your favourite animal. Write your poem based on the simple model in (a). This time, you have introduced alliteration into the activity and written an alliterative adjective poem:

   Puppies: *pacy, paranoid, pertinacious, pestilent, piebald, piddling, possessive, pouncing, puckish, pudgy.*

3. Using the dictionary, select 10 adjectives, one from each of the first 10 letters of the alphabet. This time, there can be no alliteration:

   Athletic penguins
   Bumbling penguins
   Curious penguins
   Demented penguins
   Extravagant penguins
   Feral penguins
   Gullible penguins
   Humongous penguins
   Idiosyncratic penguins
   Juvenile penguins

ANVA (Adjective Noun Verb Adverb)

Find words (nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs) to write a formula four-word sentence. The object of this game is to practise learning about those four parts of speech and to use dictionaries to find new words, thereby building vocabulary.

1. Choose the name of an animal; for example, **ant**.
2. Write that word in the plural: **ants**.
3. Find one word (an adjective) that can describe lions. This adjective must begin with the same letter as the name of your chosen animal: ***angry*** **– Angry ants**.
4. Choose a word, a verb, that tells what the animals do: ***argue*** **– Angry ants argue**.
5. Find a word that describes *how* the ants argue: ***anxiously*** **– Angry ants argue anxiously**.
   a. You can interchange the adjective and the adverb:

      Anxious ants argue angrily.

b. The four words in your sentence begin with the same letter. This sentence is an example of alliteration.

c. How many similar lines can you write? Here are some examples:

   Alert antelopes act anxiously.
   Brown bears bounce beautifully.
   Cool cats climb carelessly.
   Quiet quokkas quibble quietly.
   Xenophobic xemes xerox xylogenetically.
   Excellent elks excavate excessively.
   Zany zebras zigzag zealously.

d. Now write and illustrate your own version of *Animalia*, a very popular children's book by author Graeme Base.

e. Take your first four-line ANVA sentence and add a prepositional phrase or two to it.

   Angry ants argue anxiously *in the middle of the night*.

Expanded noun groups

Noun groups are important in writing because writers use them in various ways to describe the subject or noun, and to add useful information into the story or report that they are writing. In this activity you will learn how to add adjectival phrases and adjectival clauses to a noun which is the subject of the sentence. You can also add in similes, as phrases or clauses.

Over the page is a step-by-step procedure for learning about the following patterns in English and knowing how they work together to add description to your writing.

You will need a few strips of paper, coloured, if possible. Cutting A4 paper is excellent.

On a strip of paper 2cm wide and 10cm long, write an adjective and a noun. The noun should be an animal (real or fictional) and written in the plural number. Examples below are in bold letters.

Enormous dragons

Complete the sentence using your adjective and noun; use a verb and a prepositional phrase.

Enormous dragons fly around the world.

From this point in the lesson, we will work with the noun group **enormous dragons**, or with your noun group.

1. **What is a noun group?**

   Enormous dragons

   Look at those two words. Which of the two words is more important? **Dragons** is more important because the word **dragons** tells you what the sentence will be about. Adjectives only tell you about that noun. As the noun is the more important word, the group of two words is called a noun group. Now you are invited to expand the content in your noun group.

   Take a strip of paper and write the word **with** on it. You are going to add more information to your noun group by writing a ***with phrase***.

   Enormous dragons with _____.

   Enormous dragons with massive nostrils.

2. **What is an adjectival phrase?**

   Look at the new noun group. What does the word **enormous** do? What is its function? It describes dragons and is therefore a describing word. The proper name for a describing word is adjective.

   Now look at the phrase **with massive nostrils**. What does this phrase do? What is its function? It describes dragons and is therefore a describing phrase. The proper name for a describing phrase is adjectival phrase.

3. **What is an adjectival clause?**

   Take another strip of paper and write the word **that** on the left end of the paper. You are now going to add a **that clause** to tell you more about the noun in your adjectival phrase. In the example, the **that clause** will provide more information about nostrils.

   Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that _____.
   Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that breathe fire.

   Look at the clause **that breathe fire**. What does this clause do? What is its function? It describes ***nostrils*** and is therefore a describing clause. The proper name for a describing clause is adjectival clause.

4. **What is a clause?**

   Look at these adjectival clauses (that clauses):

   Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that **breathe** *fire…*
   Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that **fill** *their faces…*
   Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that **are** *scary…*
   Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that **have** *burnt hairs…*
   Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that **frighten** *children…*

   The adjectival clauses are underlined, but the word after **that** is in bold and not in italics. What part of speech are *breathe, fill, are, have* and *frighten*? They are doing, being and having words; they are verbs.

   Here is one of the most important rules of grammar: ***A clause always has a verb***.

   What is the difference between the phrase ***with massive nostrils*** and the clause ***that breathe fire***? There is a verb in the clause.

   What is the difference between a phrase and clause? A clause always has a verb.

   Now put your sentence together. Here is the model:

   Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that breathe fire fly around the world.

There is a very expanded noun group, and ***dragons*** is no longer immediately in front of the verb **fly**.

What is the story about? ***Dragons***. What do they do? They **fly**. ***Dragons*** is the subject of the verb **fly**. All the words in the noun group tell us more about dragons.

Challenge: expand the noun group further

Bring more information into your expanded noun group by adding a simile to the adjectival clause, thus making your noun group even larger.

You can use a simile as a phrase or as a clause. That is, you can use a **like phrase** or an **as if clause**. For example:

> Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that breathe fire *like cyclones of destruction*…
>
> Enormous dragons with massive nostrils that breathe fire *as if they were cyclones of destruction* fly around the world.

Comment: This exercise provides a number of ways to bring description to the main noun or subject of the sentence. Writers would not use all of them at the same time, as in the examples above. This exercise on expanded noun groups gives you choices for descriptive writing. These are not the only choices available to you as a writer.

Writing a preposition poem

You will need paper and a pencil or pen; and your experience.

Look at the little preposition poems below.

Where am I going?

Along the footpath
Beside the road
To the bridge
Across the river
On the other side
Into the fields
Beside the pond
With bait.
Fishing.

Morning blues

Out of bed

To the bathroom

Into new clothes

Down the hallway

Now write your own preposition poem. Here are the rules (look at the two examples to see those rules in use):

- Each line must begin with a preposition
- Each line must have only two or three words
- You can have as many lines as you can write
- Try to use as many different prepositions as you can
- You can use any preposition more than once
- The last line of the poem can be any number of words you like.

Note: Prepositions which contain more than one word count as one word *(in front of, next to)*.

FYI: Every line in those poems above, and in your poems, is a phrase, and because the phrase begins with a preposition, they are known as **prepositional phrases**.

Now add an adjective before the noun in the prepositional phrase

Look at the example below. Add an adjective in front of the noun in each phrase in your own poem.

Where am I going?

*Along the **narrow** footpath*
*Beside the **busy** road*
*To the **old** bridge*
*Across the **flowing** river*
*On the **other** side*
*Into the **green** fields*
*Beside the **silent** pond*
*With the **best** bait.*
Fishing.

Pronouns and their referents

Whales were sighted in Moreton Bay after many years, and so people and families came to see them. They went on boats to see them close up.

The children enjoyed the trip, watching the whales at play and seeing them breach and slap the water. One came so close that it splashed some of them. This was great fun according to some loud and very happy boys and girls.

It was judged by them all to be a great day, and they wanted to see them again.

The table opposite shows the pronouns and their referents (the words or ideas the pronoun refers to).

pronoun	referent	pronoun referring properly?
them	*whales*	yes
They	*people and families*	yes
them	*whales*	yes
them	*whales*	yes
One	*whale*	yes
it	*whale*	yes
them	*the children*	yes (paragraph starts with *the children*)
This	*watching whales* *being splashed* *going on a trip* *seeing whales at play* *having fun*	too many possible referents; it is not clear to the reader what *This* refers to
It	*same list as above*	again, lacks clarity because there should be only one referent
them	*children* *people* *families*	again, the referent is not clear
they	*same list as above*	referent not clear
them	*whales*	yes

Rewriting paragraphs that show poor use of pronouns

Rewrite the following text so that the meaning is clear.

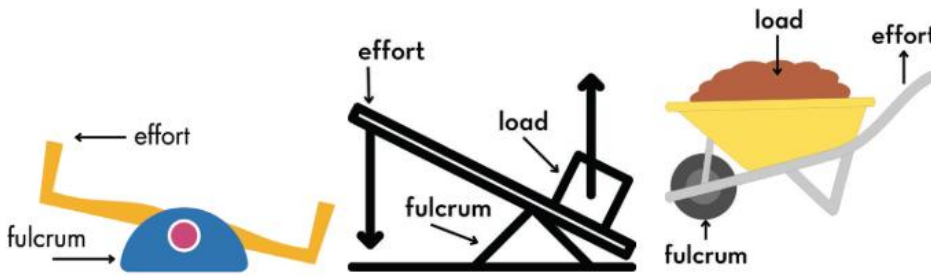
> *The dog that lives next door barks at my cat all the time. One day the gate was open and it got out and ran after it. It stopped and glared at it and then it ran away.*

CHAPTER 5

Developing sentence variety

Writers make a choice about sentence use and variety. The most common mix of sentence varieties used in a paragraph is simple and complex, with the occasional compound sentence. For example:

> *The lever is one of the most useful inventions and has been used for thousands of years. One kind of lever is the seesaw, where the fulcrum is located between the load and the effort. The second sort of lever is the crowbar, which places the fulcrum close to the load so that there is a long lever for applying effort to lift the load. The third type of lever is the wheelbarrow, and in this type, the load is placed between the fulcrum at the wheel and the effort applied lifting the handles.*



Seesaw Crowbar Wheelbarrow

Sentences and their clauses were introduced in Chapter 1, and further information about complex sentences and their subordinate conjunctions in Chapter 3. The purpose of this chapter is to show the ways in which writers can make choices in bringing stylistic variety to their writing.

The first three sentence varieties are the simple sentence, the compound sentence and the complex sentence. For example:

> *The children went to the beach.* (simple sentence)
>
> *The children went to the beach* ***and*** *had a swim.* (compound sentence)
>
> *The children went to the beach* ***so that*** *they could have a swim.* (complex sentence)

Remember that compound sentences use coordinating conjunctions to add another clause to the main independent clause (the children went to the beach). And that complex sentences use subordinate conjunctions to add a clause to the main clause.

Loose and periodic sentences

Starting with the complex sentence, writers have a choice in presenting the information in the clauses. If the main or independent clause is first in the sentence, this type of sentence is also known as a **loose sentence**.

> *The children went to the beach **so that** they could have a swim.*

The dependent clause can be put first, and this construction is known as a **periodic sentence**.

> ***So that** they could have a swim, the children went to the beach.*

Note: The dependent clause is followed by a comma.

Writers usually mix their use of loose and periodic sentence, choosing when to use periodic sentences to bring effect to their intended meaning. On some rare occasions, a writer may choose to use a succession of periodic sentences:

> ***Because they wanted to show Bellbird Grove to their visitors**, the families decided to have a picnic. **Although the weather did not look promising**, the family packed the car. **If there was going to be rain**, this possibility did not bother them.*

The usual paragraph would go something like this:

> *The families decided to have a picnic so that they could show Bellbird Grove to their visitors. Although the weather did not look promising, they decided to go anyway.*

The two previous examples represent extremes in providing the same information. In the use of three periodic sentences in parallel, the writer is striving for effect and focuses more on the family's response to the impending change in the weather. Of course, if there is a downpour, and the picnic is washed away rather than washed out, the tragedy has been suggested from the beginning of the story.

Incomplete clauses

> *Every clause must have a verb, and a complete clause has a complete verb.*

The complete verbs in the two complete clauses in that opening sentence are underlined. The same is shown in the sentence below:

> *While he was crossing the road, he was hit by a speeding car.*

Writers can turn a complete clause into an incomplete clause by using an incomplete verb:

> ***Crossing** the road, he was hit by a speeding car.*

Crossing the road is an incomplete clause because the verb *crossing* is incomplete. As stated in Chapter 2, the present participle form of a verb will always need an auxiliary – or helping – verb to make it complete.

The ability to use an incomplete clause at the beginning of a complex sentence gives writers another variety of sentence. So far, the list of sentence types is:

1. Simple sentence
2. Compound sentence
3. Complex sentence
4. Loose sentence (complex sentence with independent clause first)
5. Periodic sentence (complex sentence with dependent clause first
6. Incomplete clause starts the complex sentence (really just another form of periodic sentence)

The following sentences show how writers can use loose sentences, periodic sentences and periodic sentences where the first clause is an incomplete clause:

He was hit by a speeding car as he was walking across the road.

As he was walking across the road, he was hit by a speeding car.

Walking across the road, he was hit by a speeding car.

The boy was asked by his teacher to repeat what he had said because he had spoken aloud.

Because he had spoken aloud, the boy was asked by his teacher to repeat what he had said.

Having spoken aloud, the boy was asked by his teacher to repeat what he had said.

We had to get out of bed if we wanted to see the sunrise.

If we wanted to see the sunrise, we had to get out of bed.

To see the sunrise, we had to get out of bed.

Complex compound sentences

Occasionally, information can be packaged in a compound sentence that contains dependent clauses:

> *The dog that lives next door is unfriendly and it barks a lot because it is left alone all day.*

The underlined dependent clauses are embedded in each of the two independent clauses.

Parallelisms

Parallelisms involve repetition of the same language patterns and are an effective and useful device for variety in sentence construction and presentation of short lists. They can help communication, understanding and memory and are also useful for structuring information and for ordering thinking. Parallelisms can be of words, phrases, sentences and larger units of text.

> *The best and freshest produce is grown in Tasmania where the water is clean, where the air is pure and where the farming practices are sustainable.*

Parallelism was used effectively in the *National Apology to Australia's Indigenous Peoples* and *to the Stolen Generations*, delivered by then Prime Minister Kevin Rudd to the Australian Parliament on 13 February 2008:

> *We today take this first step by acknowledging the past and* ***laying claim to a future*** *that embraces all Australians.*
>
> *A future where this parliament resolves that the injustices of the past must never, never happen again.*
>
> ***A future where*** *we harness the determination of all Australians, indigenous and non-indigenous, to close the gap that lies between us in life expectancy, educational achievement and economic opportunity.*

A future where *we embrace the possibility of new solutions to enduring problems where old approaches have failed.*

A future based *on mutual respect, mutual resolve and mutual responsibility.*

A future where *all Australians, whatever their origins, are truly equal partners, with equal opportunities and with an equal stake in shaping the next chapter in the history of this great country, Australia.*

The speech is structured by the parallel expression of ideas introduced in short paragraphs by the expression *A future (where)*.

Look at the underlined sections and you will see other parallelisms embedded in the sentences, usually in groups of three. This speech is an example of a well-written and highly structured piece of writing. The Prime Minister of that time delivered the speech, but there was a great speech writer involved.

Theme

Theme position is the topic or expression that is placed first in the clause or sentence. For example, in the two sentences below, you can see the difference in emphasis shown by placing the two concepts in the topical or first part of the sentence:

Water storage systems *are needed for communities and farms to survive in rural Australia.*

Survival of farms and communities *in rural Australia depends upon water storage systems.*

Theme is paired with the notion of **rheme**, theme being the information placed first in the clause or sentence (*Water storage systems*) followed by the new information (rheme) following the theme (*are needed for communities and farms to survive in rural Australia.*)

Different parts of a sentence can be put in the theme position to place the emphasis where the writer wants to stress one part of the sentence more than another. Look at the same sentence presented in three ways below:

The bridge was closed to traffic yesterday suddenly.

Traffic was closed from the bridge suddenly yesterday.

Yesterday, the bridge was closed to traffic suddenly.

Suddenly, the bridge was closed to traffic yesterday.

Another term for shifting parts of the sentence into the theme or first position is **focus shift**. The writer shifts the reader's focus to the beginning of the sentence or clause.

Here is a paragraph that demonstrates theme and rheme working together to bring cohesion to the text.

> *In the rich muddy estuaries of Northern Queensland, ornithologists are waiting to record the arrival of the* ***whimbrels****.* ***Many whimbrels*** *roost at sites at the mouth of the* ***Barron River****.* ***From here****, they have been observed to fly twenty kilometres out to sea to find* ***crustaceans****.* ***The shrimp and other small marine life*** *are brought back to feed* ***the hungry chicks****.* ***The young whimbrels*** *have only a few months to grow and prepare for the long flight back to Northern Europe and Siberia.* (Campbell & Ryles 1996; 2022)

The paragraph begins with the theme of a place (*muddy estuaries*), and the rheme is added (*arrival of whimbrels*). That rheme or new information is picked up as the theme for the next sentence (*Many whimbrels*), leading to the rheme (*Barron River*). That rheme allows the theme (*from here*) to the rheme of (*crustaceans*). Notice that the theme from that rheme is a definition of crustaceans. The sentence continues in the same theme/rheme manner.

Post-positioning

Post-positioning begins with the expression *There are* or *There is*; it is particularly useful for introducing new paragraphs. *There are* or *There is* also positions the reader to expect a stronger presentation of the topic:

> *A message underlies this advertisement. The clothing represents quality, value and connection, but most of all it makes you part of the scene.*
>
> *There is a message that underlies this advertisement. The clothing represents quality, value and connection, but most of all it makes you part of the scene.*

You can see the effect because *There is a message* drags the adjectival clause (*that underlies this advertisement*), creating two clauses instead of one in the opening sentence.

Nominalisation

Nominalisation is the simple process of turning a verb or other part of speech into the noun (nominal form). For your information, *nomen* is the Latin word for *name*, and nouns are the names of things, people and places, etc. For example:

> *The man **behaves** differently when he watches the Origin football game on TV.*

We can nominalise the verb *behaves* and write the sentence with a focus on the behaviour rather than on the men.

> *The **behaviour** of the man is different when he watches the Origin football game on TV.*

Nominalisation, together with theme, allows writers to focus on a preferred part of a message.

*Terrorist bomb **damages** infrastructure.*

*Infrastructure **damage** from terrorist bomb.*

***Damage** to infrastructure by bomb.*

*Bomb **damage** to infrastructure.*

There is a lot to take on board in this chapter, so take one item at a time and work with that for a few weeks to become familiar with the concept and its application in writing.

CHAPTER 6

Punctuation

Punctuation was developed to help the reader and is the first indication of the difference between spoken language and written language. Over many centuries, each change in technology and the uses of writing has brought about further changes to punctuation. The information in these pages has been developed from the *Style Manual* (6th edition, 2002). Oxford and a number of other universities and publishing houses also offer equivalent information.

Linguist Michael Halliday stated that punctuation is used for three purposes:

1. *Punctuation marks used as **boundary markers***

   Most punctuation marks or signs function to show the boundaries between sentences, and between phrases and clauses, and therefore function to organise parts of the printed text in order to assist the reader. Capital letters and full stops (and exclamation marks and question marks) mark the boundaries of the sentence in English. Commas, colons, semicolons and dashes mark boundaries between clauses and phrases within the sentence.

2. *Punctuation marks used as **status markers***

   Quotation marks, question marks and exclamation marks show the reader the status or state of the text. They also function as boundary markers.

3. *Punctuation marks used as **relationship markers***

   The apostrophe shows possessive relationships; *This is John's bike* (apostrophe of possession). Note that there is also an apostrophe of omission, used for contractions.

Capital letters

1. **Capital letter as boundary marker**

   The first function is that of boundary marker at the beginning of a sentence. All sentences begin with a capital letter, regardless of the word or letter used.

2. **Capital letters show status and other relationships**

   Proper and personal names

   a. The names of all people – real or imagined – are capitalised: Jane Austen, James Smith, Luke Skywalker.

   b. Foreign names need to follow the original and/or official source of the English equivalent: Charles de Gaulle, Chou En-Lai, Leonardo da Vinci, Gertrude Stein.

   c. Names of people and places are not capitalised if their use has been generalised: hoovered the carpet, french windows, chinese lantern.

   Place names

   Place names – both real and fictitious – are always capitalised, in the same way as personal names are capitalised: France, Sri Lanka, Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Baja California, St Petersburg, London, Nova Scotia, Gondor, Hogwarts.

   Formal titles and terms

   Names of organisations, official names of monuments and names of office holders are capitalised, when the specific expression is being used: the Commonwealth Government, the Premier of Tasmania, the Archbishop of York, the Eiffel Tower, the Great Wall.

   However, capitals are not used when these positions and landmarks are used generally: *The economic leaders of the G20 countries could not agree and decided to report to their respective presidents and prime ministers.*

Full stop

The full stop (also called a 'period' in American English) has different functions:

1. The full stop is used as a boundary marker to mark the end of a sentence.
2. The full stop is used with ***abbreviations*** that do not end in the same letter as the whole word, and that begin with a letter in the lowercase: *vol.* (*volume*), *p.* (*page*), *cont.* (*continued*), *pp.* (*pages*). Note that *Mon* (*Monday*), *Jan* (*January*) and *Mar* (*March*) do not have full stops because they begin with a letter in uppercase.
3. A full stop may or may not be used after initials in a proper name:

   Past usage: *J. W. Ponsonby*
   Modern usage: *JW Ponsonby*

The ***modern usage is preferred*** by the *Style Manual* (2002, p. 158). Therefore, no full stops in letters, envelopes, bibliographies and references.

Question mark

The question mark acts as a boundary marker to mark the end of a sentence or question. Note the distinction between a direct and indirect question.

1. **Direct question:**

   What is happening? (wh question)

   Did you see what happened? (interrogative form: i.e. subject and verb reversed)

   This really happened? (non-interrogative form)

2. **Indirect question:**

   The teacher asked what had happened. (full stop is used instead of question mark)

3. **Rhetorical question:**

   What do you think happened? (question mark used, but no answer required)

4. **Tag question:**

   It really happened, didn't it?

Exclamation mark

The exclamation mark is used to mark the end of a sentence that signals strong emotion, a high degree of surprise, incredulity or concern:

I don't believe it!
Don't you dare!

Colon

The colon is used in a sentence after an introductory statement and indicates that a list follows:

> *The gentleman went to the shop with his list: bread, milk, eggs, bacon, cheese, butter and cream.*

Semicolon

The semicolon is used to separate two clauses instead of using a conjunction:

> *The music of southern Spain is different to that of Germany; the traditions, rhythms and instruments are totally different.*

Note: The use of the semicolon provides a different style and effect to:

> *The music of southern Spain is different to that of Germany because the traditions, rhythms and instruments are totally different.*

Quotation marks (single and double)

1. Include all of the speaker's words, and all punctuation marks associated with those words, inside the quotation marks.
2. Use double quotation marks.
3. Use single quotation marks for quotes within the quotation:

   "Did the premier mean it when she said that 'she would eat her hat' if her team lost?" asked the reporter.
4. Quotation marks are also used to indicate quotations as well as direct speech.

   Did he really say that he "would eat his hat" if we won the game?

Note: Titles of books, films, vessels and so on are now italicised in print, and are underlined or given single quotation marks in handwritten text.

Comma

The comma is the hardest-working punctuation mark. It operates as a boundary marker for clauses, phrases and words within sentences; it is also used to show the relationships between the different parts of sentences.

- **Comma use 1: Between words in a list.**

  Pattern: Topic and first part of comment, word, word, word and word.

  Example: *My herb garden comprises oregano, mint, chives, sage, onions and basil.*

  FYI: There is no comma before the 'and' in Australian and British English. However, American English uses the comma as follows: …*sage, onions, and basil*. (The American use of that last comma is called the 'Oxford comma'.)

- **Comma use 2: To separate adjectives when more than one is used before a noun.**

  Pattern: Adjective, adjective noun + rest of sentence.

  Example: *Pleasant, friendly people are required for this front-office job.*

- **Comma use 3: After salutations and greetings at the beginning of a sentence.**

  Pattern: Salutation/vocative or greeting + rest of sentence or statement.

  Example: *Skye, what is the name of your latest book from the library?*

  Congratulations, you have won three metres of purple ribbon.

- **Comma use 4: In direct speech and within quotation marks.**

  Pattern (a): "Quote/speech," finish.

  Example: *"Too much wind and sleet for comfort," she said.*

  Pattern (b): Introduction, "Quotation/speech."

  Example: *He asked, "Does anyone want to go out in these conditions?"*

  Pattern (c): "First part of quotation," information, "completion of quotation."

  Example: *"This is a mild storm for these parts," the driver said, "we have much worse in midwinter."*

- **Comma use 5: In compound sentences where the subject of each independent clause is different.**

  Pattern: Independent clause, + independent clause.

  Example: *The children swam in the sea, and their parents watched from the beach.*

- **Comma use 6: In compound sentences where the subject of each independent clause is the same, but where the clauses are long.**

  Pattern: Long independent clause, + long independent clause.

  Example: *The parents spent the day chatting and partying, but they were very tired after such a long day in the sun.*

- **Comma use 7: In compound sentences where the subject of each clause is the same, DO NOT USE a comma between the clauses.**

  Pattern: Independent clause + independent clause.

  Example: *The children enjoyed playing in the water and they were very tired that afternoon.*

- **Comma use 8: After an introductory dependent clause (periodic sentence).**

  Pattern: Dependent clause, + independent clause.

  Example: *Wanting to see the little penguins, the children went to Philip Island.*

- **Comma use 9: After an introductory adverb or phrase.**

  Pattern: Adverb/phrase, + clause.

  Example: *Quickly, he put the crab back into the river.*

- **Comma use 10: Before and after non-defining adjectival clauses.** (i.e. before and after adjectival clauses that provide non-essential or non-defining information about the topic.)

  Pattern: Topic (of independent clause), non-defining adjectival clause, rest of independent clause.

  Example: *Madrid, which I happened to visit some years ago, has wonderful plazas.*

Commas are NOT USED in open punctuation, such as addresses and dates:

The Premier of New South Wales
Parliament House
Sydney NSW 2000
10 June 2025

The apostrophe

This punctuation mark has two purposes:

1. To show something has been left out of a word
   They don't have it. **(apostrophe of omission)**
2. To show ownership
   John's bicycle. **(apostrophe of possession)**

The apostrophe of omission

The apostrophe of omission is used to show that a letter or letters have been omitted or left out of a word. The resulting word is called a **contraction**. Some examples: *I'm* for *I am*, *it's me*, *didn't*, *could've*. Contractions and all kinds of abbreviations and shortened forms are used appropriately in SMS and other digital text messages. But never use contractions, abbreviations and shortened forms in essay writing. In narrative writing, contractions will only appear in dialogue.

The apostrophe of possession

The apostrophe of possession is used to show ownership. Follow this three-step process to form possessives with the apostrophe:

1. Write the base word	*cat*
2. Add the apostrophe after the word	*cat'*
3. If there is no 's' on the base word, add 's'	*cat's*

Possessive singulars

The three-step process can be followed with any possessive singular that does not end in 's', and it can apply to some special cases of words ending in 's':

Base word	*man*	*Susan*
Add apostrophe	*man'*	*Susan'*
Add 's'	*man's*	*Susan's*

Possessive plurals

Possession of plural nouns which already end in 's' – add the apostrophe:

Base word	*friends*
Add apostrophe	*friends'*

Other examples of possessive plurals: *The Smiths' car; ladies' dresses*

Singular nouns ending in 's'

For singular nouns ending in 's', add the apostrophe and **'s'**: *Jones's songs; Dickens's novels.*

But for **biblical, classical words ending in 's'**, just add the apostrophe: *Jesus' teachings; Archimedes' principle.*

For words that have repeated sibilant (/s/) sounds, an apostrophe is added without the 's' in order **to prevent the use of three sibilant sounds**: *Ulysses' travels; the princess's lost slipper* (plural: *the princesses' tears*).

Note: Some nouns ending with a sibilant add an apostrophe only: *for goodness' sake; for convenience' sake.*

Apostrophes and expressions of time

If the time word is singular, use an apostrophe: *one month's leave; a day's work.*

If the time word is **plural, there is no need to use an apostrophe**: *two weeks holiday; in three months time; twelve months suspension; six hours start.*

There is no apostrophe used with years stated in numerals: *In the 1980s, new forms of popular music emerged.*

Apostrophes and acronyms

No apostrophe is necessary unless the acronym is in possession:

The CD's cover showed the artist in pain.

But if the acronym is stated as plural, just add 's':

For sale: DVDs, CDs and VCRs at reduced prices.
(These acronyms are plurals and therefore no apostrophe is needed.)

Apostrophes and joint ownership

Whether to use one or two apostrophes depends upon the shared or separate ownership expressed in the statement:

Tom and Sean's holiday. (they both owned the holiday)

Maugham's and Huxley's writings. (each owned his own writing; no joint ownership)

Fermi and Einstein's contribution to the Manhattan Project. (joint contribution)

Possessive pronouns

Only nouns take an apostrophe of possession.

Possessive pronouns DO NOT have an apostrophe: *its, hers, his, their, theirs, our, ours, your, yours*. BUT ***one's*** (the only exception).

its or it's

its is a possessive pronoun (no apostrophe of possession needed)

it's is a contraction for *it is* (apostrophe of omission)

Apostrophes and titles of institutions and organisations

Apostrophes are now rarely used in titles of these kinds: *Brighton Childrens School*

Abbreviations

Abbreviations are shortened forms of words, and never use the apostrophe of omission. There are two types:

1. Abbreviations (Type 1 abbreviations) consist of one or more letters of the full word:

   p. (page); vol. (volume); cont. (continued); Mon (Monday)

   Type 1 abbreviations have a full stop if they begin with a lowercase letter.

   There is no full stop if the abbreviation begins with a capital letter: *Jan, Mar*

2. Contractions* (Type 2 abbreviations) consist of one or more letters, and end with the same letter as the full word, and DO NOT have a full stop.

   (*These are contractions without apostrophes.)

   Dr (doctor); Rd (road); St (street); Ave (avenue); figs (figures); Mr, Mrs, Ms, dept

Acronyms

Acronyms are shortened forms that are always pronounced as if they are words themselves; they are never written with full stops unless they are used as the last word in a sentence:

Anzac or ANZAC, UNESCO, scuba, UNO, WHO, IMF

Note: Popular and well-known acronyms may be written with a beginning capital letter only: *Anzac, Unesco, Unicef, Qantas*

Some acronyms have been developed from more than the initials:

Radar (radio detection and ranging)

Sitcom (situation comedy)

Laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation)

Shortened forms: currency and measurement: symbols

The following are regarded internationally as symbols, and do not have a full stop:

> *km, g, l, kl, ml, cm, Hz, A (ampere), j (joule), N (Newton), p (probability), min (minute)*

Abbreviations and contractions: Australian states (*no full stops*)

NSW, ACT, NT, WA, SA are classified as abbreviations, not acronyms. They are not pronounced as words, but as letter names.

Qld and Cwlth are contractions (Type 2 abbreviations).

Vic and Tas are abbreviations (Type 1), and under the capital letter rule, do not have full stops.

Abbreviations of foreign countries (*no full stops*): *UK, USA, NZ, EU, PRC*

Latin abbreviations: *e.g. i.e. a.m. p.m. etc. et al. c.*

These abbreviations should be used sparingly in most writing and are NEVER followed with a comma. *He loved food; e.g. burgers, pizza and seafood, etc.*

Numerals

Numerals are used for numbers 10 and above, words for numbers nine and below. However, NEVER start a sentence with a numeral, except for a year:

Thirty-seven children were in the room.

2023 was going to be a good year for this 25-year-old teacher and his nine-year-old charges.

Numerals are used to express all numbers when they accompany a symbol or unit of measurement:

$4.56 26km 7mg 9.15pm 45 min 9% (or 9 per cent)

Use a space between numbers instead of a comma. (More countries use the comma as a decimal point/marker, particularly in Europe.) *1 234 567.34578*

Dates (in the Gregorian and Julian calendars): *25.12.2023* or *25.12.23*

Note the official form-filling convention of *08.03.2003*. (Also note that most other countries put the month first.)

Other punctuation marks

Parenthesis

Parenthesis is used to enclose expressions or statements that are not essential to the immediate meaning of the sentence.

- **( ) Brackets** (parenthesis or round brackets) are used to enclose information in written text, information that is not immediately essential to a sentence, but which may clarify or add meaning to the sentence. Brackets are used judiciously in report writing and other non-fiction texts.
- **[ ] Square brackets** are used to show that someone other than the original writer has inserted material into a text; for example, comments, explanations, notes:

  Her father was a successful doctor in Ballarat [Victoria] early in the twentieth century.
- **{ } Curly brackets** (or **braces**) are used in specialist scientific and mathematical texts.
- **< > Angle brackets** are used exclusively to enclose email and web addresses, but only if stated inside other text:

  For details of the program, contact Radio National <abc.net.au/sport>.

Dash

The dash is used for:

- Elaboration of information (extra information is closer than would be used for brackets).
- Abrupt change in the structure of a sentence.
- Gathering up, amplifying, explaining (adding to what has been written).

Hyphen

The hyphen is used to join two or more words to show an association of ideas…

- with colours: *blue-black sky; deep-pink rose*
- with nouns of equal value: *owner-driver; girl-child*
- with compound words made from a noun or adjective: *hard-boiled sweets; peace-keeping force*
- with numbers and fractions: *forty-five to fifty-eight; a 14-year-old boy; three-quarter time*
- to join two or more words to make a single expression: *cut-out; north-east*
- with a prefix to avoid ambiguity: *re-form* and *reform; re-cover and recover*
- with compound expressions: *mother-in-law; premier-elect*
- with some compound words: *high-class; free-range*
- with compound words with more than one stress: *walkie-talkie; hocus-pocus*
- with expressions such as: *T-shirt; X-ray*
- to join two or more words in a common expression: *hand-to-mouth; go-ahead*
- to join a prefix to a proper noun: *post-Keynes*
- with the prefix *non*: *non-organic; non-viable*

Signposts

These are not punctuation marks, but symbols commonly used in written and other forms of communication systems.

_ **(underscore)** is used in email addresses: *jacksmith_447@mailaddress.org*

@ is used in an email address, and hardly used now in print in lieu of *at*.

**(hatch)*** is used as an important key on hand phones. In writing, the hatch is used sometimes in reports and informal printed texts to indicate address and telephone numbers. *#287 Brisbane Street Melbourne*. (*Also known as *hash* and *pound*.)

& (ampersand) is used to join two items or names together, such as in business firms: *Shannon & Pike*. It is read as *'and.'* & cannot be used in formal writing unless in the citation and referencing systems which accompany academic writing.

/ (solidus) and \ (more commonly known as **forward slash** / and **backward slash** \).

The forward slash or solidus is often used:

- To indicate alternative *(he/she; rule/principle)*
- In abbreviations such as a/c and c/-
- To show fractions in mathematical notation ¼ or expression *km/hr*

*** (asterisk)** or star is used for emphasis or as a reference for further comment.

... (ellipsis) is used in written text to show that some words have been omitted from a quoted text:

> *Among Smith's many fowl reports was one concerning bantams... and there were references to pigeons.*

Note: Only three dots are used for ellipsis, even at the end of a sentence...

Italics

Italics are now used for writing titles of books, films and ships instead of quotation marks. The ease of use on the word processor has elevated italics into its current status. (When handwriting in personal letters, underline titles.)

1. Books and periodicals
2. Plays and long poems
3. Musical compositions
4. Films, videos and TV and radio programs
5. Works of art
6. Legislation and legal cases
7. Names of ships and aircraft
8. Scientific names of animals and plants
9. Technical terms and their definition
10. Words used in a special sense or way ('*Never* do that!' they cried.)
11. Foreign words and phrases not yet absorbed into English:

    au fait, et cetera, incognito, fin de siecle, schadenfreude

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