

APPLICATIONS OF GRAMMAR / BOOK 6

Mastering Communication Skills



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Sloan, Annie Lee, revised and edited by Garry J. Moes

APPLICATIONS OF GRAMMAR, BOOK 6

MASTERING COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Includes glossary and index

1. English Language—Grammar and Composition

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Preface

This book is intended to lay a proper foundation for the student's effectiveness in communicating with the English language. The student will learn the basics of English grammar, including the definition and usage of verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and other parts of speech. In addition, the student will examine how these are to be properly used in phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and composition. The *Applications of Grammar* series is designed to develop students' skills in using the rules of grammar to communicate effectively for the glory of God.

While some today would discard the need for grammar, this text affirms that the learning of grammatical rules and their proper usage is foundational to good communication. The distinctions between words, their relation to each other in a sentence, and the rules that govern language are the basic building blocks of writing well.

This text is designed to be read carefully by the student so that he may review the grammar knowledge he has already learned and build upon it with new writing skills. Each lesson should be read carefully and reviewed as necessary. Some of the words used in the text may be new to the student's vocabulary, and their spelling unfamiliar. Therefore, a glossary and index are located at the back of this volume to provide students and teachers with additional reference material.

Many of the lessons will require the use of a dictionary. While an unabridged dictionary would be useful, a standard, full-sized, collegiate-level dictionary will be more useful. Small, pocket-size, or greatly abridged desktop editions will likely not provide the amount of information that the student will need to complete many of the lessons in this book. It would also be helpful if the student had access to a set of encyclopedias or other reference works. These will be useful in the several writing assignments included in this textbook. If your school or home does not have adequate resources of this nature, your student should visit your local library.

The Publishers

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Introduction

THE CHRISTIAN VIEW OF LANGUAGE

Students often wonder why they have to study grammar and composition when they already know how to talk and write. Although basic communication skills may be evident, every student needs to thoroughly learn not only how language works but how to use it accurately. In order to speak and write well, students must acquire a proper understanding of grammatical definitions, functions, structures, and rules so that they may verbalize their thoughts with clarity and precision. Few skills are more important to Christian students than the ability to effectively communicate through the written and spoken word.

The student will be able to study language more purposefully if he begins with an understanding of the Christian view of language. Sadly, some students merely study language and grammar because they have been made to do so. They fail to grasp that, because we are made in God's image, good communication is essential to our service to God. As an image bearer of God, the student should consider how the Bible can direct his study of language. Through faith in Jesus Christ he can be reconciled to God and learn how to use language to the end for which it was created. Because language did not originate with us, we do not have the right to use it any way we wish. We must be guided by the Bible. Language skills are not neutral; they must be oriented toward reading, writing, and speaking the truth in love. Linguistic abilities should be developed as part of the student's chief end to glorify God and enjoy Him forever.

GOD IS THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE

In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth. And the earth was without form and void; and darkness was upon the face of the deep. And the Spirit of God moved over the face of the waters. And God *said* ... (Genesis 1:1–3).

God is the origin of language, for the three persons of the Trinity spoke to each other before time began. When the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit speak to each other eternally, their communication is perfect; there is never one word of misunderstanding! The Son of God is called the *Word* of God, and the Holy Spirit searches the mind of God and communicates with spiritual words (1 Corinthians 2:10–13). When God created the heavens and the earth, He spoke it into existence by the Word of His power. When He spoke, He uttered a series of sounds—audible symbols that communicated His meaning and brought the creation into being. When God spoke, His Word conveyed both infinite power and eternal meaning—*infinite power* because He manifested His absolute will, and *eternal meaning* because He expressed His infinite mind. His infinite wisdom is revealed in creation, and the creatures He has made serve the purpose of communicating His glory. Thus the rock, for example, is used as a picture of God's unchanging character. Creation itself was designed to provide the basic terms and environment for language.

GOD GAVE MAN THE GIFT OF LANGUAGE

When God created man in His own image, He gave him the gift of language—the ability to communicate with words. He gave man the ability, like Himself, to convey meaning with his words, but He did not impart the infinite creative power of His speech. Thus, God's Word is the final authority, and men are to speak in submission to that Word. The language of man is to

be subject to God, for man by his speech has no power to create or change what God has made. Yet there is a great power to human speech. It not only sets on fire the course of our lives but the course of history as well (James 3:6).

Because language is a gift of God, it has a purpose. It was given first of all as the means by which God would communicate to man. As such, it has a high and holy place in our lives. From the beginning God chose to communicate with man. The first words spoken to Adam and Eve were His charge, “Be fruitful, and multiply, and replenish the earth ...” (Genesis 1:28). God’s desire to communicate with Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden was central to their fellowship. They “heard the voice of the Lord God walking in the cool of the day...” (Genesis 3:8). Secondly, language was given so that man would respond to God. God created mankind to praise His name and answer His call. Thirdly, it was given for men to communicate with each other in subjection to God’s word. People were given the ability to talk to one another and thereby develop marriage, the family, and other social relationships. The primary instrument for building these relationships is verbal communication. God’s purpose for language should direct our study of it.

RULES FOR COMMUNICATION

For many students, rules are a burden to be disregarded. But the student who is willing to submit to God’s order will seek to develop precision in communicating. Because God is a God of order and truth, He has demonstrated the proper use of language in His speech from the dawn of history. For people to communicate properly and effectively with one another, God not only gave language but with it the basic principles of good communication. This does not mean that we have a divinely revealed set of rules from God, but we can learn from the Bible’s use of language and build upon the principles that have been learned in the past. In particular, the Bible and the Christian religion have had a central role in molding the English language.

Consequently, the study of grammar—the body of rules for speaking and writing—should be based on the fact that God is the Creator of language and thereby the Originator of its order. Good grammar reflects His logic and manifests the orderly structure of His mind. By learning the rules of proper usage, the student will know how to make his thoughts known and communicate in a compelling manner. His purpose is not simply to be able to communicate, however, but to use language effectively to communicate God’s truth.

Language and grammar are not mere human conventions that spring from chance evolution to fill a human need. Language expresses a people’s culture, religion, and history. This is why language changes over time. Each language has its own characteristics and rules of usage. But every language displays an underlying unity with other languages. Every language is a verbal system of communication. Each has similar patterns of grammar, though not expressed in exactly the same way. Yet at bottom, the basic principles of grammatical structure are common to every language, which is why writings from one language can be translated into another. While the basic principles of grammar may be adapted in unique ways, these are derived from the original language given by God to man.

LANGUAGE CORRUPTED BY SIN

After our first parents sinned, the same Voice that spoke the world into existence now stood in judgment over mankind. And the language that had been given as a gift to man by the Father of Truth had now been distorted by the Father of Lies. That which was created to praise and

worship God had now been used to rebel against the Author of language. Man's fellowship with the Living God had been broken, and he no longer desired to hear Him speak.

In addition, the Bible tells us that after the Great Flood, men united by a common language sought unity apart from God at the Tower of Babel. Seeing this, God confused their one language by dividing it into many and scattered them over the face of the whole earth. Language was thus changed by God to keep men from disobeying His mandate. Because of these different languages, there are now barriers between men when they communicate; and sin has continued to pervert the use of language, making it an instrument of lies and manipulation. Today, there are those who would reject all form and grammar and seek to justify any use of language and any breaking of the rules of grammar. As a result, confusion reigns in many quarters, and many people have great difficulty clearly articulating their thoughts in speech and writing.

THE RESTORATION OF LANGUAGE IN JESUS CHRIST

God chose to restore language in His Son. Jesus, as the second Adam, was sent into the world to undo the sin of the first Adam and its consequences (Romans 5:19). Jesus, who is the Word, was with God in the creation because He is God (John 1:1–3). Jesus is the *logos* or revelation of God to man, for God has spoken to us in His Son (Hebrews 1:1, 2). There is no other name under heaven given among men, whereby we must be saved (Acts 4:12). God's will to communicate with man was one factor that motivated Him to restore language to its rightful state in Christ Jesus. By His death and resurrection, Christ not only provides forgiveness of sin, but also newness of life to those who receive Him by faith. As the Truth, Christ calls His disciples to speak the oracles of God (1 Peter 4:11), lay aside lies, and speak truth to one another (Ephesians 4:25). Jesus is the true source of the meaning of all things. He declared, "I am the Alpha and Omega, the Beginning and the End," says the Lord, 'who is and who was and who is to come, the Almighty'" (Rev. 1:8). As R. J. Rushdoony states:

Christ's statement has reshaped Western languages and grammars, and, through Bible translation, is reshaping the languages of peoples all over the world. Bible translation is an exacting task, because it involves in effect the reworking of a language in order to make it carry the meaning of the Bible. This means a new view of the world, of God, time and language.... Our ideas of grammar, of tense, syntax, and structure, of thought and meaning, bear a Christian imprint.¹

Students who profess the Christian faith should have a unique appreciation of the role of verbal communication. It is the Christian, above all, who should seek to be clear and accurate in his use of the written word. His God-given duty is to use language with integrity and accuracy for the sake of promoting the gospel and Kingdom of Jesus Christ. Noah Webster saw this in his day when he wrote:

If the language can be improved in regularity, so as to be more easily acquired by our own citizens, and by foreigners, and thus be rendered a more useful instrument for the propagation of science, arts, civilization and Christianity; if it can be rescued from the mischievous influence of ...that dabbling spirit of innovation which is perpetually disturbing its settled usages and filling it with anomalies; if, in short, our vernacular language can be redeemed from corruptions, and...our literature from degradation; it would be a source of great satisfaction to me to be one among the instruments of promoting these valuable objects.²

1. Rousas J. Rushdoony, *The Philosophy of the Christian Curriculum* (Vallecito, CA: Ross House Books, 1985), p. 49–50.

To show that the Christian has the marvelous opportunity to employ language and its power for the service of the gospel, Gary DeMar asserts:

Ideas put to paper and acted upon with the highest energy and uncompromising zeal can change the world. Even the worst ideas have been used for this very purpose. If minds are going to be transformed and civilizations changed, then Christians must learn to write and write well. Writing is a sword, mightier than all the weapons of war because writing carries with it ideas that penetrate deeper than any bullet. Writing about the right things in the right way can serve as an antidote to the writings of skepticism and tyranny that have plundered the hearts and minds of generations of desperate people around the world...³

Language as the gift of God needs to be cultivated for serving God. It will not only help the student in academic studies, but in every area of communication, at home, at church, and on the job. Proper English skills are a great asset in serving Christ effectively in one's calling. The student's skill in using English will make a good first impression when he sits for an interview and as he labors in the workplace. The student should take advantage of the time and opportunity he now has available to develop proficiency in English communication. May God bless you as you seek to glorify Him, not only by learning the proper use of English, but in using God's gift of language to spread His Word to every nation.

2. Noah Webster, *An American Dictionary of the English Language* (New York, NY: S. Converse, 1828); reprint by (San Francisco, CA: Foundation for American Christian Education, 1987), preface.

3. Gary DeMar, *Surviving College Successfully* (Brentwood, TN: Wolgemuth & Hyatt Publishers, Inc., 1988), p.225.



Paragraphs and Composition

Lesson One

◆ *Types of Writing*

Paragraphs and compositions are generally classified as one of the following:

1. ***Descriptive writing*** describes a topic.

Descriptive writing appeals to the senses, telling how the subject matter looks, feels, sounds, smells, tastes, or acts. Subjects may be impressions, moods, people, animals, places, scenes, or objects. There is usually some kind of “spatial movement” in descriptive writing; that is, the depiction begins at some physical reference point and moves elsewhere in developing the description: from a prominent feature to less prominent features, from head to foot, from left to right, from light to shadow, etc. Words chosen for descriptions will be words that relate to moods or one of the senses: *joyous, clanging, harsh, smooth, soft, sour*, etc. These words are adjectives, but vivid and concrete nouns, verbs, and adverbs are also effective—often better—in describing a subject.

2. ***Expository writing*** explains a topic.

Most of what you read on a daily basis—newspaper, magazine, or newsletter articles; book or movie reviews, etc.—is expository writing. Follow a logical order in your explanations. For example, begin with what your reader is likely to already know about a subject and move to lesser known facts or information. Or follow a time sequence; use *inductive reasoning* (moving from particular cases to general principles or conclusions); use *deductive reasoning* (moving from general principles to specific examples); use analogy or contrast; move from simple to complex ideas. Expository writing may also include definitions, provide instructions or directions, offer criticisms, or express the writer’s attitudes about a subject.

3. ***Argumentative writing*** takes a position on a topic and defends that position.

Argumentative writing begins with a “proposition,” a claim that something is true and right (and by implication, the opposite is false and undesirable). In formal progression, the writer goes on to analyze the proposition and surrounding facts, developing an argument that is intended to convince the reader of the truth of the writer’s position or persuade the reader to take some action in favor of the writer’s point of view. *Evidence* is an essential ingredient, much as it is in a courtroom. Think of the courtroom analogy throughout your argumentative composition: you are trying to get a favorable verdict from the judge and jury—your readers. Prove your case.

4. ***Narrative writing*** tells a story or illustrates a topic through the tool of *chronicle*.

Narrative comes in many varieties: telling an incident (a single situation), an anecdote (people in action), an autobiography or biography (life story of yourself or another), an interview (dialogue and quotation), a profile (interpretation of a person’s character based on incidents, anecdotes, biographical material, and expressions). Narratives can take the form of novels,

Lesson Four

◆ *Figurative Language*

Many journalists, poets, playwrights, and novelists use figurative language. The following is a list of the most commonly used types of figurative language, an identification of each, and two illustrations of each.

- I. A **simile** compares two things that are unlike each other by using the words *like* or *as*.
 - A. Dishonesty is like a worm in a book.
 - B. Dishonesty breathing in a heart is like a bicyclist going downhill without brakes.
- II. A **metaphor** compares two things that are unlike each other *without* using the words *like* or *as*.
 - A. Dishonesty is a worm in a book.
 - B. Dishonesty is acid in the soul.
- III. **Alliteration** is the repetition of sounds or syllables.
 - A. Dishonesty defiantly devours desired dignity.
 - B. Dishonesty denies diligent debate.
- IV. An **apostrophe** addresses a personified object or an absent person as though present.
 - A. Autumn, your paintbrush has spanned the universe.
 - B. Hollywood, please quit polluting our minds with your garbage.
- V. **Onomatopoeia** is the use of words whose sounds suggest their meanings.
 - A. The *murmur* of the morning *breeze* gently wove its path through the foliage of the trees.
 - B. The *hiss* of the snake alerted us to danger.
- VI. A **hyperbole** expresses gross exaggeration to give rhetorical emphasis.
 - A. We were so thirsty we each could have drunk a barrel of water.
 - B. My friend writes tons of letters.
- VII. A **litotes**¹—as opposed to a *hyperbole*—makes a point by denying the opposite.
 - A. Taking drugs is no smart action.
 - B. He is not a bad singer.
- VIII. **Metonymy** consists of using the name of one thing for that of something else with which it is identified or associated.
 - A. He spent an hour listening to *Beethoven*.
 - B. *Honeybees* sweeten my pancakes.
- IX. An **oxymoron** seeks to combine and reconcile two contradictory words or ideas.
 - A. His statements were *genuine dishonesty*.
 - B. My pet's death was a *cruel relief*.
- X. **Personification** gives human characteristics to anything not human.
 - A. Laziness often causes poverty to lie at one's door.
 - B. The storm raced across our city.

1. **Litotes** (pronounced *LY-toh-deez*) may be further explained as a rhetorical **understatement** in which a positive notion is replaced by its opposite negative. For example, the *negative* "I praise you not" has the meaning of the *positive* "I blame you."


XI. **Pathetic fallacy** is a form of personification that attributes human feelings to inanimate objects.

- A. My shoes are begging for a replacement.
- B. Silently my bedroom sits, waiting for my attention.

XII. **Irony**, in mockery, says the opposite of what is meant.

- A. A trip to the dentist is always the delight of my day.
- B. His statements were as clear as a dense fog.



 Write two sentences illustrating each of the following figures of speech.

I. Simile

- A. _____

- B. _____

II. Metaphor

- A. _____

- B. _____

III. Alliteration

- A. _____

- B. _____

IV. Apostrophe

- A. _____

- B. _____

V. Onomatopoeia

- A. _____

- B. _____

VI. Hyperbole

- A. _____

B. _____

VII. Litotes

A. _____

B. _____

VIII. Metonymy

A. _____

B. _____

IX. Oxymoron

A. _____

B. _____

X. Personification

A. _____

B. _____

XI. Pathetic fallacy


A. _____

B. _____

XII. Irony

A. _____

B. _____

 **Learn to pronounce, spell, and identify the twelve words in the figurative language vocabulary as they are named in this lesson. Be prepared to pronounce them orally, write them as your teacher or parent dictates them to you, and then explain their meaning in writing. Figurative language is often confined to fine literature, but it can add life and interest to any form of communication, whether written or spoken. Learn to use it.**

Lesson Five

◆ *The Basic Structure of a Composition*

Compositions that have more than one paragraph contain at least four basic types of sentences. They are the following:

1. Thesis sentence or statement
2. Topic sentence
3. Transitional sentence
4. Concluding or summary sentence or statement



The **thesis statement** is the introductory part of the composition. (In special cases, the thesis statement may be a separate statement not contained within the composition, perhaps introducing an outline, stating the general overall objective of the composition. In either case, it guides the author in focusing upon and developing his composition. For the purposes of this course, you should include your thesis statement within the composition itself.) In the thesis statement, which may contain one or several sentences, are included all of the general *clues* that are to be discussed in this composition. A reader should be able to tell just by reading the thesis statement all of the clues that will be discussed in the following paragraphs. Of course, if the thesis statement is a paragraph, it must contain a **topic sentence** and *general clue*. The topic sentence of the thesis statement contains the topic of the composition and the clues to be discussed in the composition.

The purpose of a **transitional sentence** is to connect what has already been written with what is to be written next. A key word or group of words referring to what has just been written and a key word or group of words referring to what is to be discussed next will compose the transitional sentence. Transitional sentences are logically placed at the beginning of the second paragraph and each subsequent paragraph of the composition, and they may serve as the topic sentence for that paragraph.

The **concluding sentence** (or *paragraph*) is a brief summary of what the entire composition has said and will be somewhat like the thesis statement.

◆ *Outlining*

The first step in writing a composition may be to create a technical outline of your ideas and information. Outlines consist of brief numbered statements (usually not complete sentences) stating each key point. The following example illustrates how numbers should be written in an outline (or in other tabular situations). Notice that they are aligned at the right.

I.	1.	1	one
II.	2.	22	eleven
III.	3.	340	thirteen
IV.	4.	3,707	twenty-four
V.	5.	10,595	one hundred six
VI.	6.	231,456	
VII.	7.	1,000,000	
VIII.	8.		

The following outline shows how outlines should be numbered and indented and how capitals should be used in outlines.

- I. Main Point — Type All Words With Capitals On This Line. < (Skip one line.)
 - A. Type the first word with a capital.
 - 1. Type the first word with a capital.
 - a. Type the first word with a capital.
 - b.
 - (1)
 - (2)
 - c.
 - 2.
 - 3.
 - B.


- II. Next Main Point — Type All Words With Capitals On This Line. < (Skip one line.)
 - A. < (Skip one line.)
 - B.
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - a.
 - b.
 - (1)
 - (2)
 - (a)
 - (b)



< (etc.)

Notice that, in an outline, if you have an A, you will also have a B; if you have a 1, you will also have a 2. Each type of numbered or lettered line is an outline *break*. There must always be at least two parts in each *break*. You may want to *break* your thoughts into more than two parts. If so, simply follow the order shown in the example. It is not necessary to have as many *breaks* as the example shows, but the more *breaks* you have, the easier the paper is to write, following the outline. In this way, the outline becomes the guide for composing the paper.

◆ **Writing an Essay**

 Write an essay, four to five pages in length, using the following *topic* and *clews*. (See page 2 for definitions of the terms *topic* and *clew*.)

Topic: The Election of an American President

- Clews:**
- 1. Primaries
 - 2. Conventions
 - 3. Campaigns
 - 4. General Election
 - 5. Electoral College
 - 6. Inauguration

This essay will require much **research**. Start a separate page in your notebook for each clew. In doing so, you will be generally organizing your information as you collect it. Be sure to make adequate notes relating to every source from which you take information so that you can give credit to those sources in footnotes or endnotes. Consult a writing manual for instructions on how to document your sources of information properly.

The following are samples of footnote entries.



SINGLE-VOLUME BOOKS OR PAMPHLETS:

One Author:

1. John Smith, *How to Find Happiness* (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p. 25.

Two Authors:

1. John Smith and Bill Jones, *True Happiness* (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p. 10.

Editor, Translator, or Compiler as Author:

1. John Smith, ed. and trans., *Happiness in Switzerland* (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p. 20.

More Than Three Authors:

1. John Smith, et al, *How to Find Happiness* (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p 30.

Corporation or Organization as Author:

1. Association of Counselors, *How to Find Happiness* (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p. 15.

No Author Given / Edition Other Than First:

1. *The Happiness Manual*, 5th ed., rev. (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p. 40.

Article or Chapter by One Author in a Work Edited by Another:

1. John Smith, "True Happiness," in *How to Find Happiness*, ed. Bill Jones (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p. 13.

MULTIVOLUME BOOKS:

**Multivolume Work With One General Title
(last figures represent volume and page numbers):**

1. John Smith, *The Complete History of the World*, 4 vols. (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995) 2:108.

Multivolume Work With Individual Volume Titles (by one author):

1. John Smith, *The Complete History of America*, vol. 2: *The History of the Constitution* (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p. 125.

Multivolume Work With Individual Volume Titles (by different authors):

1. John Smith, ed., *The History of Civilization*, 3rd ed., vol. 4, *The Reformation*, by Bill Jones (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p. 250.

PERIODICALS:

General Magazines:

1. John Smith, "How To Be Happy," *The Family Magazine*, April 30, 1995, p. 15.

Professional Journals:

1. John Smith, "Happiness in Society," *The Journal of the Counseling Association*, 55 (April 1995): 123.

Newspapers:

1. John Smith, "Man Finds Happiness," *The Logansville Tribune*, July 15, 1995, sec. C, p. 2.

ENCYCLOPEDIAS:

Signed Articles:

1. *The Encyclopedia of Knowledge*, 1995 ed., s.v. "World History," by John Smith.

Unsigned Articles:

1. *The Encyclopedia of Knowledge*, 1995 ed., s.v. "World History."

OTHER SOURCES:**The Bible:**

1. Eph. 2:1-5 (KJV).

**Interviews:**

1. Interview with John Smith, First Baptist Church, Logansville, Michigan, October 20, 1995.

Sermons:

1. John Smith, "How to Find Happiness," sermon preached at First Baptist Church, Logansville, Michigan, October 19, 1995.

Lectures:

1. John Smith, class lecture, Logansville College, August 5, 1995.

Audio or Video Recordings:

1. John Smith, "How to Find Happiness," tape no. 10, Logansville College collection.

Radio or Television Programs:

1. WCLP, "How to Find Happiness," May 3, 1995.

Films:

1. *The Road to Happiness*, Worldwide Film Corp., 1995.

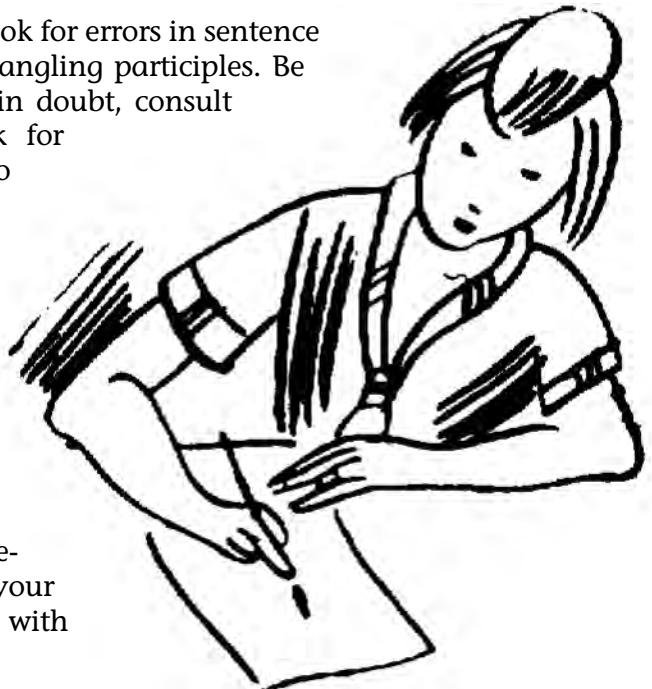
Secondary Sources of Quotations:

1. John Smith, *How to Find Happiness* (New York: Acme Publishers, 1995), p. 25, quoted in Bill Jones, *How I Found Happiness*, (Chicago: Apex Book Co., 1995), p. 35.

After your research is completed, make an **outline**, using the method illustrated at the beginning of this lesson. An outline should contain as much information as possible in the fewest words possible. In making the outline, consider the order in which you wish to present your material. The more information the outline contains and the better the arrangement of the material in the outline, the easier the outline is to follow in **writing the essay**.

Always **edit** and **proofread** your writing. Look for errors in sentence structure such as misplaced modifiers or dangling participles. Be careful with punctuation and spelling. If in doubt, consult an adequate source for assurance. Look for ideas that can be smoothly combined to eliminate choppy, child-like sentences. Include a variety of sentences, both as to form and length. Look for clauses that could be reduced to phrases or phrases that could be reduced to one word. These revisions could eliminate "verbal clutter" or "deadwood."

After you have made every revision that you think is wise to make, rewrite your paper. You should then have an essay representing your best writing to present to your teacher. Be sure to include your outline with your essay.



Lesson Six

◆ Spelling

☞ Learn to pronounce and spell the following words. These words will be used in practice exercises that follow.

- | | | |
|------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. maneuvering | 7. contributor | 13. superior |
| 2. controlling | 8. brigadier | 14. participate |
| 3. appearance | 9. conspicuously | 15. similarities |
| 4. unmistakable | 10. enormous | 16. injurious |
| 5. acknowledged | 11. Pennsylvania | 17. undernourished |
| 6. commemorative | 12. contaminate | 18. competition |

Lesson Seven

◆ Spelling and Vocabulary


☞ Learn to pronounce, spell, and explain the following words. These words may be used in subsequent practice exercises.

- | | | |
|------------|-----------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. ford | 8. celebrity | 15. pitch (<i>degree of slope</i>) |
| 2. demise | 9. nocturnal | 16. insecticide |
| 3. decor | 10. negligible | 17. implementation |
| 4. notable | 11. nostalgic | 18. exterminator |
| 5. organic | 12. boll weevil | 19. initiative |
| 6. wiry | 13. personified | 20. brigadier |
| 7. pitons | 14. obscured | 21. instantaneously |

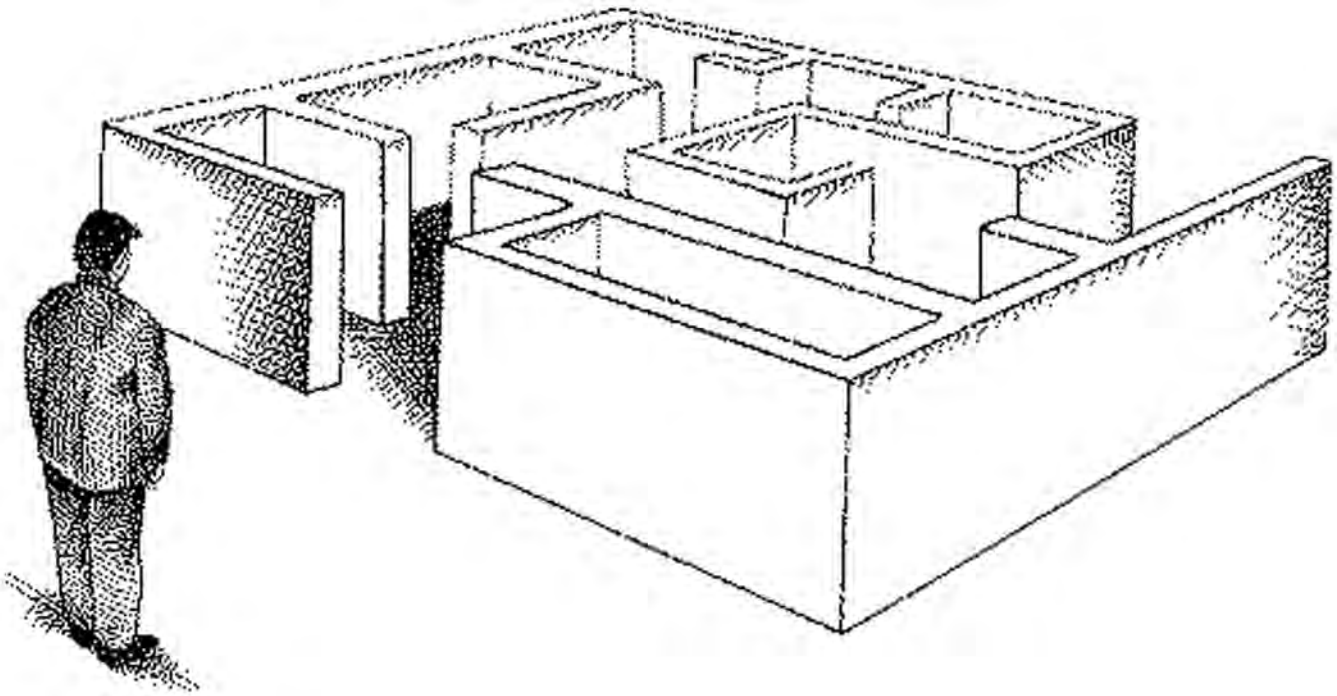


Lesson Eight

◆ Vocabulary

 Complete the following sentences by writing the words in *Lesson 7* in the sentences where the words fit.

1. On rocks or ice surfaces, mountain climbers use spikes, wedges, or pegs called _____ as support for ascending.
2. The _____ for the interior of the new library is beautiful.
3. We could not _____ the river because the stream was too deep.
4. The _____ of our original plans led us to develop further steps.
5. The company's laudable policies _____ the integrity of its owner.
6. A _____ is a beetle that is especially injurious to cotton in its early growing stages.
7. The change in the weather was so _____ that we did not change our plans.
8. The _____ of the mountainside grew steeper as the altitude increased.
9. Because some animals are _____, they are rarely seen during the day.
10. Some long-distance runners are so _____ they look undernourished.
11. One word that denotes an officer in the military is _____.
12. To have an event occur _____ is to say that it occurred without delay.
13. _____ fertilizer is of animal or plant origin.
14. He became a _____ when he broke the record in the pole vaulting competition.
15. The _____ of the old organization was a disappointment to the early settlers of our town.
16. The election of a President is always a _____ event.
17. An _____ rids himself of something unwanted by killing it.
18. Someone should take the _____ to get a Bible club started in our town.
19. When farmers started using an _____ to destroy the boll weevil, cotton production increased.
20. Emigrants often become _____ at the thought of their homeland.
21. Lack of information _____ our understanding of the problem.



Participial phrases are "amazing."



Participial Phrases

Lesson Nine

◆ Present Participial Phrases

Verbals are verb forms used as another part of speech. Our language has three verbals.

1. **Participles** (*verb forms used as adjectives*)
2. **Gerunds** (*verb forms used as nouns*)
3. **Infinitives** (*verb forms used as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs*)

Even though verbals are used as other parts of speech, they retain their power as **verbs** in the following ways:

1. They can have direct objects, indirect objects, predicate adjectives, or predicate nominatives.
2. Adverbs can modify them all.

Present participles are verb forms used as adjectives. They always end in *-ing*. Single adjectives, adjective clauses, or prepositional phrases used as adjectives are generally in a fixed position; that is, they cannot be moved. Present participles and present participial phrases used as adjectives can take several positions in a sentence.

1. If the phrase comes at the beginning of a sentence, it must modify the subject, and a comma must follow it.

Example: *Giving the soil good moisture*, the rain slowly fell during the night. (The present participial phrase comes at the beginning of the sentence and modifies the subject *rain*.)

2. If the present participial phrase comes inside the sentence, it has a comma before and after it if it is not essential to the sense of the sentence. It is, therefore, called a **non-restrictive phrase**.

Example: The rain, *giving the soil good moisture*, slowly fell during the night. (The omission of the participial phrase would not hurt the sense of the sentence.)

3. If the present participial phrase comes inside the sentence and is essential to the sense of the sentence, it is considered **restrictive** and needs no commas.

Example: Every person *driving a car* must have a driver's license. (It is easy to see how omitting *driving a car* would distort the sense of the sentence.)


Sometimes determining whether a participial phrase is a *restrictive* or *non-restrictive* phrase is not easy. In such cases, use commas if they help the flow of the sentence; if not, omit them.

4. A present participial phrase coming at the end of a sentence and immediately following the word it modifies needs no comma to precede it.

Example: We saw the eagle *training her young*. (No comma is needed because *training her young* modifies *eagle*.)

5. If the present participial phrase comes at the end of the sentence and does not immediately follow the word it modifies, a comma must precede it.

Example: We sat in our tent, *watching the bald eagle overhead*. (*Watching the bald eagle overhead* modifies *we*.)

-  Below each of the following sentences, write the *participial phrase* and the *word it modifies*. Over each underlined word, write initials that designate the use of that word in that participial phrase. Punctuate the sentences correctly. Identify the rule for the punctuation by writing the number of the rule (*as stated in this lesson*) at the end of the sentence.

DO

Example: 1. The raft, carrying tourists on the Snake River, slowly made its way down the stream. 2

carrying tourists down the Snake River — raft

IO DO

Example: 2. The mule deer stood at a distance, giving themselves space for protection. 5

giving themselves space for protection — deer

-  Use these abbreviations (*see the Glossary for definitions*) for this exercise and any future ones like it:

DO = Direct Object

IO = Indirect Object

OP = Object of a Preposition

ADV = Adverb

ADJ = Adjective

PA = Predicate Adjective

PN = Predicate Nominative

S = Subject

A = Appositive

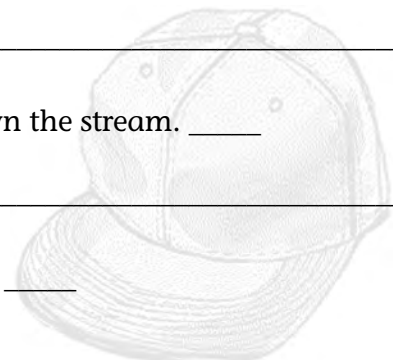
1. A gentle breeze came from the north, making the day a pleasant one. _____

2. The morning sun peered through the trees, casting its rays on the sightseers. _____

3. One young chap suddenly saw his cap floating carelessly down the stream. _____

4. Sensing the need for rescue, the tour guides manned the oars. _____

5. The water, flowing more rapidly than the raft, carried the cap a distance away. _____



6. One guide, removing his shoes and socks, prepared to ford the stream. _____

7. They worked the oars, maneuvering the raft more closely to the target. _____

8. A bend in the river, gradually slowing the pace of the water, became the rescuer's friend. _____

9. The guides, skillfully controlling the oars, brought the raft within an arm's length of the cap. _____

10. Stretching his body over the edge of the raft, a tourist snatched the target from its watery surroundings. _____

11. Seeing the rescue, his fellow tourists responded with applause. _____

12. The rescuer, being an instant hero, smiled with delight. _____

13. Saying not a word, he reclaimed his position on the raft. _____


14. Twelve eagles sat on their perches, giving the bird watchers a delightful view. _____

15. The beavers, being nocturnal, never made an appearance. _____

16. Leaving unmistakable evidence of their presence, the beavers successfully eluded the crowd. _____

Lesson Ten

◆ Present Participial Phrases

 Rewrite the following sentences, putting *present participial phrases* into each sentence. Some sentences can be revised to have more than one phrase. Punctuate your sentences correctly and identify the punctuation rule from *Lesson 9* that applies, as you did in the previous exercise. The first sentence has been done for you.

- George Armstrong Custer only attended school until he was ten years old and then left to spend half of his next seven years with his sister in Monroe, Michigan. 2

George Armstrong Custer, attending school until he was ten years old, left to spend half of his next seven years with his sister in Monroe, Michigan.

- Because he wanted to be a soldier, he obtained an appointment to West Point. _____

- He graduated at the bottom of his class because he was a careless, yet intelligent, student. _____

- He helped defend Washington when he fought in the Battle of Bull Run. _____

- He received the rank of brigadier general and then became a leader in the Battle of Gettysburg. _____

- He became a celebrity in the Union Army because he dressed conspicuously, conducted himself fearlessly, and showed traits of outstanding endurance. _____

- He stayed in trouble with his superiors because he was stubborn and offensive. _____

- Public opinion favored him; that gave him the chance to participate in the Sioux Expedition. _____

9. Gen. Alfred H. Terry commanded the expedition and sent Custer with 600 men to prevent an Indian's escape along the Little Big Horn River. _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
10. Because he did not know that Sitting Bull's men numbered 6,000, Custer believed that he and his men could take the village; therefore, he disobeyed his orders, divided his force, and charged. _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
11. Most of Sitting Bull's forces, who waited in an ambush around the village, answered the charge with greater strength. _____
- _____
- _____
12. The very next day—June 27, 1876—General Terry, Major Benteen, and Captain Reno joined forces and found the bodies of Custer and 208 other men. _____
- _____
- _____

Lesson Eleven

◆ *Misplaced And Dangling Participles*

Even though present participial phrases can be moved, they can be misplaced and can appear to modify the wrong word. That error is called a *misplaced modifier*. Another error, called a *dangling participle*, can occur when a present participial phrase does not have any word in the sentence to modify.

Example: 1. Being their favorite pet, the Ponders let their dog sleep in their bedroom. ***misplaced modifier***

Correction: The Ponders let their dog, being their favorite pet, sleep in their bedroom.

2. Working as a sales clerk, some merchandise sold is foreign-made. ***dangling participle***

This phrase is *dangling* because it has no word in the sentence to modify.

Possible corrections:

Working as a sales clerk, Mary sells some merchandise that is foreign-made.

Mary, *working as a sales clerk*, sells some merchandise that is foreign-made.

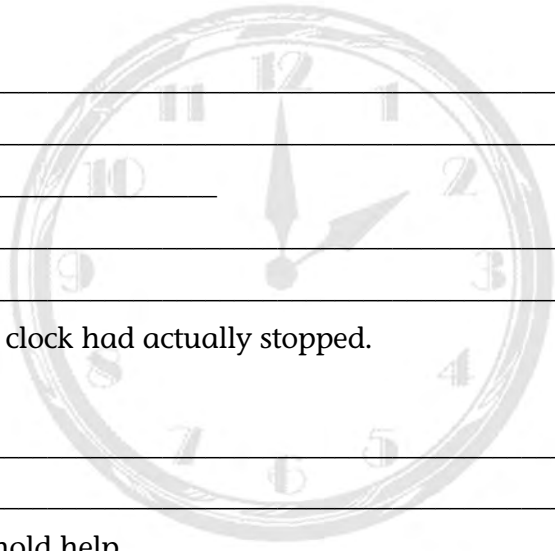
- ✍ **Underline the present participial phrases in the following sentences. All are placed in ways that cause confusion in meaning. Identify each error by writing at the end of the sentence either *misplaced modifier* or *dangling participle*. Rewrite the sentences, correcting the errors. In some cases, you may have to add or subtract words to improve clarity.**

1. Wondering if the answer was accurate, much discussion followed. _____

2. The teacher, trying to get extra instruction, was approached by the student.

3. Watching the time, the clock seemed to drag. _____

4. Hanging on the wall, the students decided that the clock had actually stopped.



5. Being a capable student, the teacher chose to withhold help. _____

6. Backing out of the driveway, our dog was hit. _____

7. Applying only organic fertilizer, our tomatoes are rich in vitamins. _____

8. The street cleaners hit my mailbox clearing the brush. _____

9. The cold temperature killed my flowers bringing frost. _____

10. Seeing that the numbers were incorrect, the scoreboard was immediately changed.

11. Meeting and talking with the superintendent, Taylor's attitude changed. _____

- 12. Dancing around several issues, the tunes played by the candidates moved voters in the election. _____

- 13. Running out to get the ball, it rolled away toward the corner. _____


- 14. Reaching the top of the hill, her dress was caught in some brush. _____

- 15. Growling in the distance, I could hear the animals. _____

- 16. Cleaning my teeth, the dentist’s beard kept getting my attention. _____

Lesson Twelve

◆ Writing Present Participial Phrases

 Choose an experience that you have had, a story you have read, an article appearing in a magazine, or a clipping from a newspaper. Write ten sentences, using *present participial phrases*, that tell the story in the experience or the reading material that you have chosen. Identify the punctuation in your sentences by, once again, putting the number of the rule in *Lesson 9* at the end of the sentence. Vary the location of your participial phrases in the sentences. Try to use sentences illustrating all five rules for punctuation at least once.

- 1. _____

- 2. _____

- 3. _____

- 4. _____

- 5. _____

- 6. _____



7. _____

8. _____

9. _____

10. _____

Lesson Thirteen

◆ Past and Perfect Participial Phrases

Past participles are the fourth principal part of every verb. In predicates, they require a helping verb, thus forming a verb phrase. For regular verbs, the past participle is formed by adding *-d*, *-ed*, or *-t* to the present (infinitive) form of the verb. The spelling of the past participle of irregular verbs varies with each verb and must be memorized individually.

Example: The letter [*was written*] yesterday.

In this sentence, **was written** is a *verb phrase*, consisting of the helping verb **was** and the main verb **written**, which is the past participle form (third principal part) of the verb **write/wrote/written**. This phrase serves as the *predicate verb* of the sentence.

Past participles may also be used as *adjectives*, alone or in *past participial phrases*.

Example: The letter **written yesterday** was never mailed.

In this sentence, **written yesterday** is a *past participial phrase* used as an adjective to modify the noun **letter**. The word **written** is the past participle.


Perfect participles are formed by the helping words *having* (active voice) or *having been* (passive voice) followed by a *past participle*. They are **not** used as main (predicate) verbs in sentences but are used only as adjectives, alone or in *perfect participial phrases*.

Example: Mark Wellman, having been paralyzed by a mountain-climbing accident, never gave up the idea of climbing a mountain again.

In this example of a participial phrase, the **past participle**, *paralyzed*, is preceded by the helping verb *having* (the **present participle** form of *have*) and the helping verb *been* (the **past participle** form of *be*.) All three verb forms used together constitute a *perfect participle* (in passive voice). They indicate that the action expressed in the participial phrase was complete before the action expressed in the main verb of the sentence occurred.

Past participial phrases, perfect participial phrases, and present participial phrases have five similarities:

1. They contain a verbal.
2. They function as adjectives and, therefore, modify nouns and pronouns.
3. They can be moved in a sentence.
4. They retain their power as a verb to have a direct object, an indirect object, a predicate adjective, or a predicate nominative.
5. Their punctuation is the same.

 Underline the *past* and *perfect participial phrases* in the following sentences and punctuate each sentence. At the end of the sentence, write the number of the rule from *Lesson 9* which the punctuation represents. Below the sentence, write the word which the phrase modifies.

Example: Paralyzed from the waist down, Mark Wellman worked as a ranger at Yosemite National Park from 1986 to 1991. 1

Mark Wellman

1. Mike Corbett and Mark Wellman exhausted from 13 days of climbing reached the 8,800-foot summit of Half Dome on an autumn day in September 1991. _____

2. Their beards were of no concern having grown to a wiry stubble. _____

3. Planned as a seven-day endeavor the climb stretched to 13 days. _____

4. Their energy depleted from the struggle soon became a major factor. _____

5. Early on the 13th day they ate the last of the food packed for their climb. _____

6. A previous climb undertaken by the same men was less stimulating. _____

7. Their climb up El Capitan² completed in 1989 did not satisfy their ambitions. _____

8. Having finished it without difficulty they set their sights on a greater challenge. _____

9. Experienced in rock climbing Corbett made the ascent twice. _____

10. The pitons set on the first climb gave Wellman hand grips by which he pulled himself up. _____


11. Corbett returned for their equipment compactly arranged in backpacks. _____

2. El Capitan is a mountain that is 7,569 feet (2,307 m) high, which is located in eastern California in the Sierra Nevada.

12. Having edged up the slope hand-over-hand Wellman admitted he had met some scary experiences. _____
- _____

Lesson Fourteen

◆ Past and Perfect Participial Phrases

 Rewrite the following sentences, using *past* or *perfect participial phrases* in as many different positions in the sentences as the information will afford. Be careful, however, to let their placement clearly identify the word they modify. Punctuate the sentences and identify the rule for the punctuation at the end of each sentence by writing the number representing the rule, as you did in Lesson 13. The first sentence has been done for you.

1. A rope which Corbett set allowed Wellman to make 5,000 pull-ups. 3

A rope set by Corbett allowed Wellman to make 5,000 pull-ups.

2. The route which they took was called Tis-Sa-Ack. _____
- _____

3. They shared their last breakfast bar which they ate 75 feet from the summit. _____
- _____

4. The food and water which they estimated for the trip barely lasted. _____
- _____

5. The face of Half Dome had served as a bed for eleven nights and would now give them one more space for rest. _____
- _____

6. The climb which was halted just 75 feet from completion started at 8:30 a.m. _____
- _____

7. Corbett had already hung the rope which was attached to pitons. _____
- _____


8. This rope which was forced outward by the overhang swung as far as 20 feet from the face of the dome. _____
- _____

9. Their site was set on a granite slab which they reached at 1:25 p.m. _____

10. Wellman settled into a wheelchair which a support crew had provided. _____

Lesson Fifteen

◆ *Past Participial Phrases*

 Choose a story from your literature book or an article from a magazine or newspaper. Copy ten sentences containing *past participial phrases*. If you cannot find such sentences, write your own. Underline each phrase and, at the end of the sentence, write the noun or pronoun that the phrase modifies. Identify the punctuation as you have been doing.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

6. _____

7. _____

8. _____


9. _____

10. _____



Lesson Sixteen

◆ Past Participial Phrases

 Choose an entirely different story or article for this assignment. Using information from that story or article, write ten sentences in which you have a *past participial phrase*. Do not copy a sentence directly from the story or article. Try to illustrate all five positions that past participial phrases can take in a sentence and identify the punctuation as you have been doing. Underline your phrase and write the noun or pronoun that the phrase modifies at the end of the sentence.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

6. _____

7. _____

8. _____


9. _____

10. _____



Lesson Seventeen

◆ Review of Rules for Participial Phrases

-  Review the rules that govern the punctuation of *present* and *past participial phrases*. Name them on the lines provided. Below each rule, write two sentences illustrating the rule. The first sentence should have a *present participial phrase* in it; the second, a *past participial phrase* in it. Let this serve as a test for you. You should be able to do it without referring to the rules. Your sentences should be original ones, not any previously written or copied.

Rule I: _____

A. Present Participial Phrase:

B. Past Participial Phrase:

Rule II: _____

A. Present Participial Phrase:

B. Past Participial Phrase:

Rule III: _____

A. Present Participial Phrase:

B. Past Participial Phrase:

Rule IV: _____

A. Present Participial Phrase:

B. Past Participial Phrase:

Rule V: _____

A. Present Participial Phrase:

B. Past Participial Phrase:

