

English-Language

Pitfalls

for

Dutch Authors

**Workbook for the Course
“Writing in English for Publication”
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Part 1
Introduction

Introduction

According to *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary*, a pitfall is "a hidden or not easily recognized danger or difficulty." The purpose of this reader is to help Dutch graduate students learn to recognize and avoid the pitfalls they will encounter when writing in English.

This reader can best be seen as a map which both charts danger zones and suggests ways of avoiding them. Unlike a standard map, however, this reader focuses on the danger zones and de-emphasizes matters which are most likely familiar territory for the Dutch graduate student. Many of the topics in this reader are not treated exhaustively. Instead, the materials concern specific areas in which Dutch scholars' English texts can and *do* go wrong. Where there exist rules and regularities to help the non-native speaker of English avoid a pitfall, these are explained. On the other hand, where a given problem area is not rule-governed, lengthy practice exercises are offered as the most effective learning tool.

This reader was written to supplement *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (APA, 5th ed., 2001), the academic psychologist's most useful reference source for scientific writing. Where relevant, the APA guidelines are briefly summarized, and supplementary information for the native speaker of Dutch is given.

Some remarks on using this reader:

- Words or sentences marked with one or more asterisk (*) illustrate incorrect or poor English.
- The full references for sources referred to in the text can be found in a reference list at the end of this reader.
- Complicated grammatical terms are avoided as much as possible; definitions of most grammatical terms can be found in a glossary at the end of the reader.
- Consider not writing directly on the pages containing exercises (but instead on a separate sheet of paper or photocopy). This way, the same exercises can be reused at a later time by you or someone else.

Part 2
Parts of Speech

2.1 Adjectives & Adverbs

Although the same word can usually be used as both an adjective and an adverb in Dutch, this is not true in English. Dutch writers of English often forget to use adverbs where they are needed: An adjective is often used instead.

Note the following definitions:

- An adjective (e.g., *clear*) is a word which modifies (i.e., tells more about) a noun.
- An adverb (e.g., *clearly*) is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. You can form most adverbs by adding *-ly* to the corresponding adjective.

Below are some examples:

There is a *clear* difference between the two patterns.

(The adjective *clear* modifies the noun *difference*.)

Pattern 1 differs *clearly* from Pattern 2.

(The adverb *clearly* modifies the verb *differs*.)

This finding is *clearly* important.

(The adverb *clearly* modifies the adjective *important*.)

2.1E Exercise on Adjectives and Adverbs

Correct the below sentences by replacing incorrectly used adjectives with the corresponding adverb. Some sentences need no correction. The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

- 1) The subjects were either underrewarded, equitable rewarded, or overrewarded.
- 2) We were reluctant to follow his advice.
- 3) We still lack conclusive proof.
- 4) This phenomenon is relative rare.
- 5) This main effect was significant at $p < .01$.
- 6) The mean in Condition 1 was significant greater than in Condition 2.
- 7) The beam of light was exceptional strong.
- 8) The superiority of Treatment 1 was quite evident.
- 9) The patients in Treatment 1 recovered at a significant faster rate than the patients in Treatment 2.

2.2 Articles (*a, an, the*)

2.2.1 What Are Articles?

An article (*lidwoord*) is "any of a small set of words . . . used with nouns to limit or give definiteness. . . ."¹ There are two types of articles, indefinite and definite:

	English	Dutch
Definite Article(s)	the	de, het
Indefinite Article(s)	a, an	een

2.2.2 How Are Articles Used?

Generally speaking, definite and indefinite articles are used in the same way in Dutch and English, namely:

A) An **indefinite article** (*a, an; een*) usually precedes a singular countable² noun that introduces a particular person, place, or thing.

A volunteer brought a food package to a local crisis center.

B) **No article** usually precedes plural nouns that introduce particular persons, places, or things.

Volunteers brought food packages to local crisis centers.

C) The **definite article** (*the; de, het*) usually precedes a singular or plural noun representing something that is (i) specified or given a definite identity by modifiers of the noun or (ii) already known to the reader.

(i) Below is an example of a noun (*theories*) preceded by the definite article because its identity is specified by a modifier (*that were presented . . .*).

The learning theories that were presented in chapter 1 are critically analyzed in chapter 2.

But:

Learning theories are critically analyzed in chapter 2.

(ii) The entity specified by a noun preceded by a definite article could be known either:

(a) because it has already been mentioned in the same text

¹Source: Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary.

²For a discussion of countable and uncountable nouns, see section 2.2.3 below.

A volunteer brought a food package to a local crisis center, but *the* crisis center refused to accept *the* food package from *the* volunteer.

Volunteers brought food packages to local crisis centers, but *the* crisis centers refused to accept *the* food packages from *the* volunteers.

OR

(b) because it can reasonably be assumed that the average reader already knows of or suspects its existence.

The subjects in this study were university students.

The ceiling of *the* lab was painted black.

One might expect the reader of an empirical research report to know or suspect that there were subjects, an experimental lab, and a ceiling in the lab.

But:

A confederate "accidentally" dropped *a* box of paper clips.

A hidden camera was installed in the ceiling.

One would not expect the reader of an empirical research report to know that the study involved a confederate, a box of paper clips, or a hidden camera, unless these things had been mentioned earlier in the research report.

2.2.3 Countable vs. Uncountable Nouns

The distinction between countable and uncountable nouns is relevant to the distinction between definite and indefinite articles: The use of indefinite articles as described above applies only to "countable" nouns; "uncountable" nouns (e.g., *information*, *air*) are never preceded by an indefinite article and have no plural form (*meervoud*).

Countable nouns are nouns that can be counted. They normally have both singular and plural forms, for example: *study/studies*, *subject/subjects*, *variable/variables*.

Uncountable nouns are nouns that can be divided, but not counted. These nouns occur only in the singular. The following are examples of uncountable nouns: *water*, *rice*, *energy*, *luck*, *information*, *music*. If you want to speak of one or more particular instances of such nouns, you need to use additional words, for example: *a grain of rice*, *a piece of information*.

Some nouns can be either countable or uncountable, depending on what you mean. For example, one denotes scientific disciplines (*history*, *psychology*) and variables (*race*, *sex*) with uncountable nouns, even though the same words can be used as countable nouns in other contexts (e.g., *blacks and whites in America have separate histories*; *the war between the sexes*).

The main problem for native speakers of Dutch is that countable nouns in Dutch are not always countable nouns in English, and vice versa.

Uncountable in English	Countable in English	Countable in Dutch
<i>advice</i>	a piece of advice	een advies
retarded (human) development	an interesting development	een vertraagde ontwikkeling
(the variable showed) high reliability	a reliability coefficient of .88	een hoge betrouwbaarheid
<i>research</i>	a research program	een onderzoek
<i>scissors</i>	a pair of scissors	een schaar
<i>training</i>	a training program	een training
<i>trousers, pants</i>	a pair of trousers, pants	een broek
(the variable showed) high validity		een hoge validiteit

2.2.4 "a" vs. "an"

Your ears will usually tell you which indefinite article (*a* vs. *an*) to use: *a* study, *an* experiment, and so forth. Sometimes, however, the choice may seem less obvious.

You can determine whether to use *a* or *an* from the sound of the subsequent noun, **not** from the first letter of that noun. If a word begins with a consonant (*medeklinker*) sound, use *a*; if the word begins with a vowel (*een klinker*) sound, use *an*.³

For example:

an ace, an AIDS patient	
a euphemism, a European	an egg, an ECG
	an island, an ICBM
a one-sided argument	an opinion, an OECD plan
a union, a U.S. marine	an upset
a history, a hypochondriac	an herb, an hour, an honor
a young person, a Y	
a xerox copy, a xenophobe	an X-ray, an X
a J	an F, an H, an L, an M, an N, an R, an S

2.2.5 The Indefinite Article (A/An): Dutch-English Differences

In Predicates Denoting Occupation, Nationality, Religion

In English an indefinite article is used prior to nouns denoting occupations, nationalities, and religious affiliations, whereas in Dutch this is often not the case.

<i>She is a poet.</i>	<i>Zij is dichter.</i>
<i>He is a German.</i>	<i>Hij is Duitser.</i>
<i>She is a Catholic.</i>	<i>Zij is katholiek.</i>

³The same rule tells you how *the* should be pronounced. The introducing the words in the left column sounds sort of like "tha." The introducing the words in the right column sounds like "thee."

With, As

The object of the prepositions *with* and *as* is preceded by an article in English, but often not in Dutch.

Without a doubt	Zonder twijfel
He works as a carpenter.	Hij werkt als timmerman.

100, 1,000, 1,000,000, etc.

<i>one/a</i> hundred	honderd
<i>one/a</i> million	miljoen

Other Examples of Dutch-English Differences in Use of the Indefinite Article

<i>as a result of</i>	<i>als gevolg van</i>
<i>as a rule</i>	<i>als regel</i>
<i>at a profit/loss</i>	<i>met winst/verlies</i>
<i>to give an answer</i>	<i>antwoord geven</i>
<i>to take an interest in</i>	<i>belang stellen in</i>
<i>to be in a hurry</i>	<i>haast hebben</i>
<i>in a (certain) sense</i>	<i>in zekere zin</i>
<i>a short time later</i>	<i>korte tijd later</i>
<i>to make a distinction</i>	<i>onderscheid maken</i>
<i>on a large scale</i>	<i>op grote schaal</i>
<i>have a right to</i>	<i>recht hebben op</i>

to suffer from:

<i>a headache</i>	<i>hoofdpijn</i>
<i>a toothache</i>	<i>kiespijn</i>
<i>a cold</i>	<i>kou</i>
<i>the flu</i>	<i>griep</i>
<i>a fever</i>	<i>koorts</i>
<i>depression</i>	<i>een depressie</i>

2.2.6 The Definite Article (The): Dutch-English Differences

Singular Abstract Nouns Used in a General Sense

In English (but often not in Dutch), singular abstract nouns used in a general sense (including academic subjects and words ending in *-ism*) are not preceded by the definite article.

Life is unpredictable.
Het leven is onvoorspelbaar.

The introductory course in political economy covers *capitalism, socialism, and communism*.

In both languages abstract nouns used in a specific sense are preceded by the definite article.

The life of a writer is uncertain.
Het leven van een schrijver is onzeker.

Plural Nouns Used in a General Sense

In English, you will not find the definite article preceding plural nouns used in a general sense, as occurs in Dutch.

Mortgage rates have dropped in the past year.
De hypotheektarieven zijn in het laatste jaar gedaald.

Nouns Denoting Institutions

Some nouns denoting institutions are not preceded by an article when used in a general sense. When these same nouns are used in a particular sense (e.g., in the sense of a particular institution or building), however, an article is used. Note also that there are differences between American and British English in this regard.

American English

They go to *church* every week.

We will meet at *the church*.

She attends *college*.

He toured *the college*.

They are in *prison*.

We will visit *the prison*.

He was admitted to *the hospital* . . . admitted to *hospital*.

We will visit *the hospital*.

He attends *the university*.

He toured *the university*.

British English

Same as Am. E.

Same as Am. E.

Same as Am. E.

Same as Am. E.

Same as Am. E.

Same as Am. E.

Same as Am. E.

Same as Am. E.

. . . attends *university*.

Same as Am. E.

Dutch

Ze gaan elke week naar *de kerk*.

Same as Am. E.

Zij studeert aan *de universiteit*.

Same as Am. E.

Ze zitten in *de gevangenis*.

Same as Am. E.

Same as Am. E.

Same as Am. E.

Hij studeert aan *de universiteit*.

Same as Am. E.

"X of Y" Constructions

English constructions of the form "X of Y" are usually preceded by *the*. So instead of, for example, "development of professionalism in . . .," you will tend to see "the development of professionalism in . . ." This general pattern applies to titles and headings as well as to text. (However, newspaper headings and headlines often omit articles like these.) An important exception is that "X of Y" constructions that denote a variable are not preceded by *the*, as in the following: "Year of birth was positively correlated with security of attachment." Note the following Dutch-English differences.

in <i>the name of</i>	in <i>naam van</i>
to <i>the exclusion of</i>	met <i>uitsluiting van</i>
with <i>the exception of</i>	met <i>uitzondering van</i>
on <i>the occasion of</i>	bij <i>gelegenheid van</i>
to <i>the satisfaction of</i>	tot <i>tevredenheid van</i>

Exceptions to this *the X of Y* "rule" include:

in <i>case</i> of	voor <i>het geval</i> dat
BUT: in <i>the case</i> of	in <i>het geval</i> van
in <i>light</i> of (AmE)	
BUT: in <i>the light</i> of (BrE?)	

Other Examples of Dutch-English Differences in Use of the Definite Article

Expressions of Time:

<i>spring</i> (<i>fall</i> , etc.) is my favorite season	<i>de lente</i> is mijn favoriete jaargetijde
twice an (<i>hour</i> , <i>day</i> , <i>week</i> , etc.)	tweemaal in <i>de maand</i>
<i>next</i> time	<i>de volgende</i> keer
<i>last</i> time	<i>de vorige</i> keer
BUT: <i>the last</i> time	<i>de laatste</i> keer

Expressions of Number or Amount:

<i>half</i> of the subjects	<i>de helft</i> van de subjects
over <i>fifty</i>	boven <i>de vijftig</i>
one in <i>twenty</i>	een op <i>de twintig</i>

Group Labels Based on a Common Characteristic:⁴

the chronically ill	chronisch zieken
the elderly	ouderen

Other Expressions:

by <i>mail</i> (AmE); by <i>post</i> (BrE)	met <i>de post</i>
in <i>public</i>	in <i>het openbaar</i>
<i>dinner</i> will be served at 6:00	<i>het eten</i> is om zes uur
I will travel by <i>bus/train/...</i>	ik ga met <i>de bus/trein/...</i>
<i>public</i> transportation	<i>het openbaar</i> vervoer
translate into <i>Dutch</i>	vertalen in <i>het Nederlands</i>
<i>come to light</i>	aan <i>het licht</i> komen
within <i>reach</i> of	binnen <i>het bereik</i> van
lose <i>courage</i>	<i>de moed</i> verliezen
to learn/know by <i>heart</i>	uit <i>het hoofd</i> leren
at <i>first sight</i>	op <i>het eerste gezicht</i>
at <i>stake</i>	op <i>het spel</i>

⁴The APA manual (4th ed.) advises against group labels which in essence identify a group with its distinguishing characteristic. Instead the manual advises terms such as chronically ill persons, elderly persons.

2.2E1 Exercise on Articles: General Usage

Below are sentences Dutch or English. Translate each Dutch sentence into English. For each sentence in English, decide whether an article needs to be inserted in the blank (and if so, which one[s]). The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

- 1) I don't like _____ coffee [in general].
- 2) I don't like _____ coffee they sell here.
- 3) _____ L/love will conquer all.
- 4) In _____ case of the boys living in a foster home, the pattern of results was the opposite.
- 5) De Hollandse tulpen zijn beroemd.
- 6) De tulpen die hij kocht waren te duur.
- 7) Het leven is soms moeilijk.
- 8) Het geeft niet wat de andere mensen denken.
- 9) People who break _____ law don't always go to _____ prison.
- 10) They go to _____ school only four days a week [to study].
- 11) He went to _____ school to apply for a job as a teacher.
- 12) They go to _____ church every Thursday evening [to worship].
- 13) They go to _____ church every Thursday evening to attend reading lessons.
- 14) Can you translate this into _____ Dutch for me?
- 15) Every member of _____ Jones family plays _____ violin.
- 16) I have to be at _____ work at 8:00 a.m.
- 17) She read the book from _____ beginning to _____ end in one sitting.
- 18) Everyone with _____ exception of Martin enjoyed the concert.
- 19) The students were expected to learn the names of each European capital by _____ heart.
- 20) Even though the results were very disappointing, no one lost _____ hope.
- 21) He graduated from _____ secondary school at _____ age of 21.
- 22) He went to _____ college at _____ age 21.
- 23) At this time of _____ year it's difficult to recruit new members.
- 24) In _____ name of my supervisor, Mrs. Smith, I would like to congratulate you.

- 25) I heard your speech on _____ radio.
- 26) I saw the interview on _____ television.
- 27) These researchers believe that a cure for AIDS is within _____ reach.
- 28) They performed their duties to _____ satisfaction of everyone.
- 29) When the truth comes to _____ light, people's opinions will change.
- 30) In _____ light of these findings we propose. . . .
- 31) People associated with this religion dress only in _____ white.
- 32) More than _____ half of _____ subjects who participated correctly guessed the true purpose of the experiment.
- 33) Do you normally drink coffee with _____ breakfast?
- 34) Hoe meer opleiding je hebt hoe makkelijker het is een interessante baan te vinden.
- 35) Hij wil arts worden.
- 36) Als kind woonde zij in Amerika.
- 37) Zij hebben een eigen woning.
- 38) Mensen op die leeftijd willen een eigen leven leiden.
- 39) Most people eat three meals _____ day.
- 40) They have _____ little money.
- 41) She has _____ few friends.
- 42) Wat een mooi weer.
- 43) In _____ certain sense, these findings are not surprising.
- 44) Wat een interessant onderzoek.
- 45) Mag ik je een advies geven?
- 46) Zij is geen huisvrouw.
- 47) He is suffering from both _____ terrible headache, _____ cold, and _____ flu.
- 48) Write _____ answer to each of _____ following questions [each question has only one answer].
- 49) That can be an uncertain way of earning _____ living.
- 50) He was pleased that the specialist took _____ interest in his son's illness.
- 51) Everyone should have _____ right to _____ job.

- 52) Leeftijd is een even belangrijk kenmerk als persoonlijkheid.
- 53) You should always take _____ aspirin with _____ half _____ glass of water.
- 54) He was _____ actor, _____ singer, and _____ dancer.
- 55) _____ participants in the debate will include _____ philosopher, _____ businessman, and _____ journalist.
- 56) He is _____ enthusiastic fisherman and _____ hunter
- 57) What kind of _____ scientist are you?
- 58) Bring an umbrella in _____ case of rain.
- 59) Is she following _____ theological or _____ religious course of study?
- 60) Is that _____ natural island or _____ man-made one?
- 61) _____ disaster was _____ result of _____ lack of foresight.
- 62) He married _____ cousin of his best friend.
- 63) A demonstration by factory workers touched off _____ Revolution of 1920.
- 64) The committee will assess _____ nature and _____ extent of the problem.
- 65) The committee will assess _____ nature of _____ problem and _____ extent of _____ damage.
- 66) Exposure to this chemical in early childhood may result in _____ retarded development.
- 67) _____ high interrater reliability is crucial in content analysis.
- 68) Everyone, with _____ exception of Mary, will come along.

2.2E2 Exercise on Articles: Usage In a Research Report

*In each blank, insert a, an, the, or no article. The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.*⁵

How do _____ attempts to regulate one's own behavior affect _____ inferences one draws about others? We suggest that perceivers draw dispositional inferences about _____ target (characterization) and then adjust these inferences with _____ information about _____ constraints on _____ target's behaviors (correction). Because _____ correction is (generally) more effortful than _____ characterization, _____ perceivers who devote cognitive resources to _____ regulation of their own behavior should be able to characterize _____ targets but unable to correct those characterizations. In Experiment 1, _____ unregulated subjects incidentally ignored _____ irrelevant stimulus while they observed _____ target's behavior, whereas _____ self-regulated subjects purposefully ignored _____ same irrelevant stimulus. In Experiment 2, _____ unregulated subjects expressed their sincere affection toward _____ target, whereas _____ self-regulated subjects expressed false affection. In both experiments, _____ self-regulated subjects were less likely than _____ unregulated subjects to correct their characterizations of _____ target. _____ R/results suggest that _____ social interaction (which generally requires _____ self-regulation of ongoing behavior) may profoundly affect the way in which _____ active perceivers process information about others.

⁵This exercise and answer key are modified versions of the abstract in the following article: Gilbert, D. T., Douglas, S. K., & Pelham, B. W. (1988). Of thoughts unspoken: Social inference and the self-regulation of behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 55, 685-694.

2.3 Prepositions

2.3.1 The Problem With Prepositions

A preposition (*voorzetsel*) can be defined as a word used in combination with a noun (or a noun equivalent) to form a phrase with an adjectival or adverbial function. Prepositions are also used in combination with verbs to form "phrasal verbs" (e.g., *look after*, *hand out*).

We do not really need a definition, however; most everyone knows that *under*, *over*, *before*, *in*, *of*, and so forth form a distinct class of words with a distinct sort of function. Likewise, the pitfall posed by prepositions hardly needs to be explained to the student of a foreign language. As one expert on American usage put it,

One of the greatest difficulties in learning the European languages is the mastering of the idiomatic use of prepositions with verbs, adjectives, and nouns. Usually there is only the faintest glimmer of logic or system in these compulsory matings, and English is particularly willful in its disregard of the obvious clues provided by prefixes; so much so that usage has here and there created double possibilities, equally valid. . . . But this concession is not always to be relied on, for *agree to* and *agree with* are not really interchangeable, any more than *compare to* and *compare with*. A mastery of all the differences and subtleties is rare, yet nothing gives away the foreign speaker or the insensitive writer like the misused preposition, or again the tenable proposition which turns out to be wrong for the meaning intended. (Follett, 1966, p. 257)

2.3.2 Strategies for Finding the Right Preposition

To quote yet another authority on usage, "the proper preposition is a matter of idiom; and idioms, if they do not come 'naturally,' must be either learned or looked up" (Bernstein, 1973, p. 344). If the right preposition does not always come "naturally" to you, there are sources you can consult. One of the best sources to consult on prepositions in expressions that clearly lie within the territory of your academic discipline or subdiscipline is an article that: (a) concerns a topic which is very similar to your own topic; (b) was written by a native speaker of English; and (c) appears in a prestigious journal. You might find it helpful to read such an article with conscious attention to the use of prepositions, or having the article on hand when writing.

If you are unsure about more general prepositional idioms, there are a number of reference books you can consult. Probably the best and most versatile reference books are the "learner's dictionaries": These are complete English dictionaries providing not only definitions of words, but also guidelines and examples of correct usage (e.g., *Collin's COBUILD English Language Dictionary*; *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*). The *Collin's COBUILD* dictionary is larger than the Oxford learner's dictionary. These learner's dictionaries are also good sources of information on verbal constructions (see section 2.5.5). When you are uncertain which preposition should be used together with a particular word, just look up the word in one of these dictionaries. The text devoted to the word will usually provide examples and/or guidelines linking use of the word in a particular sense with the correct preposition.

Exercise 2.3E: Prepositional Expressions

Fill in the correct prepositions in the sentences below. In some cases no preposition is necessary, and in some cases there is more than one possible answer. (After correcting your answers, you might make a list of the prepositions you missed for further study.) The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

- 1) Every researcher should **abide** _____ APA guidelines on the ethical treatment of human subjects (i.e., every researcher should follow these guidelines).
- 2a) The article was prepared _____ **accordance** _____ APA guidelines.
- 2b) The format of the article **accords** _____ APA guidelines.
- 3a) We do not know how to **account** _____ these unexpected findings.
- 3b) Jones provides a chilling **account** _____ the experiences of one mentally ill individual in a prison environment (i.e., Jones describes these experiences).
- 3c) _____ no **account** should these findings be considered conclusive.
- 3d) This potentially important factor should be taken _____ **account**.
- 4) Testing did not begin until the subject's eyes had become **accustomed** _____ (had **adapted** _____) the lack of light in the room.
- 5) Their research **addresses** _____ three key questions.
- 6) The subjects were 160 patients **admitted** _____ the hospital _____ leukemia.
- 7) They are **afraid** _____ spiders.
- 8a) The foreign minister **agreed** _____ the proposal.
- 8b) The representatives of the two countries did not **agree** _____ each other _____ this matter.
- 8c) Scholars in this area cannot **agree** _____ the correct explanation for this phenomenon.
- 9a) The extremely permissive parents in our sample **allowed** _____ their children nearly unlimited freedom.
- 9b) The positive correlation between A and B is quite suggestive, even if we **allow** _____ the possibility that some third, as yet uninvestigated variable may in fact be responsible for the relationship.
- 9c) These findings **allow** _____ only one conclusion.
- 10) The total deficit **amounted** _____ \$6.2 billion.
- 11a) His colleagues recommended that he **apply** _____ the position.
- 11b) Riley's theory of behavior **applies** only _____ members of Western societies.
- 12a) Pedagogical strategies school should be **appropriate** _____ the particular needs of pupils.
- 12b) These strategies are **appropriate** _____ this group of children.
- 13) _____ her **arrival** (i.e., as soon as she arrived) she was brought up to date on the most recent events.
- 14) They **asked** _____ further information.
- 15) The subjects were randomly **assigned** _____ four different conditions.

- 16a) They wanted to **draw attention** _____ one particular aspect of the issue.
 16b) They **focused** their **attention** _____ one particular aspect of the issue.
- 17) Two decades ago no one was **aware** _____ the dangers posed by this substance.
- 18) An interesting **book** _____ Dillon is listed on the syllabus.
- 19) Figures depicting these relationships appear _____ **the bottom of page 271** and _____ **the top of page 272**.
- 20) Only a few subjects were **capable** _____ solving the problem without assistance.
- 21a) He **cares** _____ his ill brother.
 21b) He **takes care** _____ brother's two children every weekend.
- 22) The program was designed to **cater** _____ the needs of the target group.
- 23) I have enclosed a **check** _____ \$90.
- 24) Individuals of this type tend to **choose** _____ very challenging tasks.
- 25) It was **clear** _____ the tone of his voice that he was **disappointed** _____ the results.
- 26a) Researchers in this field **compare** the human brain _____ a computer.
 26b) In the next section the results of the present study are **compared** _____ those of Rogers et al. (1988).
- 27) Each group was **composed** _____ two women and two men.
- 28) The researcher expressed his **concern** _____ the poor performance of these pupils.
- 29a) Romero is **considered** _____ a great man.
 29b) Romero is **considered** _____ compassionate and intelligent.
 29c) In this biography Romero is **considered** _____ both a religious man and a politician.
 29d) A number of factors must be taken _____ **consideration/account**.
- 30a) A water molecule **consists** _____ two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom.
 30b) According to this theorist, true freedom **consists** _____ actual life opportunities, not just the absence of coercive laws.
- 31a) Money is considered an important **criterion** _____ success in that society.
 31b) SAT scores were the principal **criterion** _____ selecting recipients of the scholarship.
- 32a) We present our main **criticism** _____ his theory in the following section.
 32b) They prepared a thorough **critique** _____ her theory.
 32c) A great deal of **criticism** was **leveled** _____ the authors of the paper.
- 33) The ceremony will take place _____ **a specific day** (e.g., _____ Monday, _____ December 1, or _____ his birthday).
- 34) Between 1985 and 1990 there was a significant **decrease** _____ the number of complaints submitted to the commission.
- 35) Self-control is defined as the **degree** _____ which people can control their own behavior.

- 36) This train will **depart** _____ Chicago in 10 minutes.
- 37) The outcome will **depend** _____ a number of factors.
- 38) Infant attachment style may be an important **determinant** _____ social adjustment later in life.
- 39a) The speaker discussed recent **developments** _____ philosophy.
 39b) The speaker discussed **the development** _____ 20th century philosophy.
- 40a) Smith **differs** _____ Jones _____ the correct explanation for this pattern of results.
 40b) Smith and Jones **differ** _____ their opinions on this matter.
 40c) The results of this study **differed** considerably _____ those of previous studies on the same topic.
 40d) The methodology employed in this study was **different** _____ that used in previous studies in this paradigm.
- 41) These teaching strategies put minority children _____ **a disadvantage**.
- 42a) Therapists must maintain an appropriate degree of emotional **distance** _____ their patients.
 42b) The **distance** _____ A _____ B is 50 km.
- 43a) The responsibilities were **divided** _____ the two teachers.
 43b) The responsibilities were **divided** _____ the four teachers.
 43c) The participants were **divided** _____ three groups.
- 44) The effect of this variable was investigated _____ a variety of task **domains**.
- 45) Many workers did not elect to **enroll** _____ the educational program.
- 46a) Two individuals **entered** _____ the room.
 46b) The two warring parties **entered** _____ peace negotiations.
- 47a) Taylor provided no **evidence** _____ this proposition.
 47b) They presented **evidence** _____ a negative relationship between income and creativity.
- 48a) The researchers offered an interesting **explanation** _____ their null findings.
 48b) These researchers do not agree on the **extent** _____ which motivation influences cognition.
- 49) Most researchers in this area are **familiar** _____ the work of Rogers.
- 50) Festinger is **famous** among social psychologists _____ his theory of cognitive dissonance.
- 51) **Fear** _____ heights is not uncommon.
- 52) The results of the interventions **fell short** _____ expectations.
- 53a) The subjects were asked to **fill** _____ two questionnaires.
 53b) Please **fill** _____ (i.e., *write*) your name _____ the first line.
 53c) Mr. Smith will **fill** _____ (i.e., *replace*) your teacher, who is sick today.
- 54) This notion **fits** _____ rather well _____ that of the group mind.

- 55) He was found **guilty** _____ plagiarism.
- 56) In the next chapter we will **go** further _____ our reasons for selecting this particular methodology (i.e., we will discuss them in greater detail).
- 57a) Subjects were asked whether they had ever **heard** _____ the Cuban missile crisis.
 57b) Those who had **heard** _____ the Cuban missile crisis were asked to recount what they had **heard** _____ it.
- 58a) The researchers noted that there had been a significant **increase** _____ the number of welfare applications.
 58b) They reported no significant **decrease** _____ unemployment.
 58c) Wages **increased** _____ 1.3% last year.
- 59a) The effect of A on B was **independent** _____ the effect of C on B.
 59b) The effect of A on B was **dependent** _____ the effect of C on B.
 59c) Adolescents seek **independence** _____ their parents.
- 60) X is a good **indicator** _____ Y.
- 61) The present study was designed to improve our **insight** _____ this problem.
- 62a) **Interest** _____ this topic waned in the 1960s.
 62b) These findings will be **of interest** _____ many scholars.
- 63a) Blood pressure was measured _____ 30-s **intervals**.
 63b) Blood pressure was measured four times, _____ six-month **intervals** between the measurements.
- 64) It is problematic that these children **lag** _____ their peers in cognitive functioning.
- 65) Individuals in Group 1 performed _____ a particularly high **level**.
- 66a) A. Smith is **married** _____ R. Smith.
 66b) A. Smith plans to **marry** _____ R. Mandel.
- 67a) This policy measure is a **means** _____ an end rather than an end in itself.
 67b) They plan to raise money _____ **means** _____ a bake sale.
- 68) Individuals who did not **meet** _____ criteria were not allowed to participate.
- 69) Peron's (1990) **model** _____ growth over time is not supported by these results.
- 70a) Many workers **objected** _____ the new proposal.
 70b) The workers raised **objections** _____ the new proposal.
- 71a) _____ my **opinion**, this study is seriously flawed.
 71b) Goldstein's **opinion** _____ the human race was not favorable.
 71c) Martin has an outspoken **opinion** _____ this issue.
- 72) A total of 911 employees **participated** _____ the program.
- 73) Stern's **perspective** _____ this issue is unique.

- 74)Our most important criticism **pertains** _____ the way in which the data were analyzed.
- 75)Critics **point** _____ the fact that the findings have never been replicated other than by Smith himself.
- 76)X is a good **predictor** _____ Y.
- 77)Group members were **prevented** _____ seeing one another.
- 78)Students who demonstrate low **proficiency** _____ mathematics are the focus of these interventions.
- 79)Profits were directly **proportional** _____ investments.
- 80a)The teacher was **proud** _____ his pupils.
80b)The teacher took **pride** _____ his work.
- 81)Their **reaction** _____ the proposal was favorable.
- 82)The government aims to **reduce** the number of welfare recipients _____ 40%.
- 83)The team expects to win **regardless** _____ whether the star player recovers from her injury.
- 84a)Cross-national research suggests that the availability of guns is positively **related** _____ the incidence of violent crime.
84b)Cross-national research suggests that there is a positive **relationship** _____ the availability of firearms and the incidence of violent crime.
84c)Unemployment in this country is high _____ **relation** _____ that in other European countries.
- 85)The present findings are of **relevance** _____ theory X.
- 86a)The building **reminded** him _____ a church.
86b)The building was **reminiscent** _____ a church.
- 87a)**Research** _____ this topic consistently supports theory X.
87b)**Research** _____ this question consistently supports theory X.
87c)**Research** _____ this area consistently supports theory X.
- 88a)The **results** _____ this study were quite unexpected.
88b)The **results** _____ research of this type are difficult to interpret.
88c)The **results** _____ subjects in condition A were particularly surprising.
- 89)Subjects were **rewarded** _____ each correct answer they provided.
- 90)Businesses in this sector face a high **risk** _____ failure.
- 91a)Roger is still _____ **school**. He expects to graduate _____ two years.
91b)Roger is still _____ **school**. He should be home _____ an hour.
- 92)Children are particularly **sensitive** _____ radiation.
- 93a)I have been looking for that book _____ three months ago.
93b)I have been looking for that book _____ months.

- 94a) We conducted a **study** _____ the effect of A on B.
 94b) We conducted a **study** _____ the epidemiology of skin cancer.
- 95) To **substitute** B _____ A is to **replace** A _____ B.
- 96a) Subjects in Group 2 were particularly likely to **succeed** _____ Task 1.
 96b) Everyone expected the twins to **succeed** _____ life.
 96c) They **succeeded** _____ replicating their study.
- 97) Research in this area **suffers** _____ a lack of methodological sophistication.
- 98) Jones was **suspected** _____ publishing falsified results.
- 99) This methodological problem may pose a **threat** _____ the credibility of the findings.
- 100a) Participants were required to report to the training sessions _____ **time** (i.e., at the correct time).
 100b) Because of the terrible rush-hour traffic this morning, I did not arrive _____ **time** to hear her lecture.
- 101) This book has been **translated** _____ Dutch _____ English.
- 102a) It is **typical** _____ him to forget names.
 102b) This sort of behavior is **typical** _____ children _____ this age.
- 103) It was not _____ 1990 that researchers began to show interest in this question.
- 104) Much of the **variation** _____ the subjects' responses could be attributed to their scores on variable X.
- 105a) The political parties differ in their **views** _____ abortion.
 105b) Stern's **view** _____ the human mind is unique.
 105c) _____ Stern's **view** the human mind may be compared to a circus.
 105d) She kept careful notes on her observations, **with a view** _____ publishing them at some point in the future.
- 106a) The subjects were asked to complete the questionnaire and then **wait** _____ further instructions.
 106b) The princess is **waited** _____ by a staff of 14 people.
- 107) **Welcome** _____ the Netherlands.

2.4 Pronouns

An overview of pronouns and pronoun cases in English:

Case	Personal Pronouns					Relative Pronouns		
Nominative	I	you	it/she/he	we	they	who	which	that
Objective	me	you	it/her/him	us	them	whom	which	that

Use the nominative case in the following circumstances.

(A) The pronoun acts as the subject (*onderwerp*) of a sentence or clause.

They wrote the book.

Who is he?

Is he the person who wrote this book?

Is he as capable as she?

(Grammatically, the sentence above is considered a shortened version of:

Is he as capable as she is?)

(B) The pronoun acts as a predicate noun (*see glossary for explanation of this term*).

Who is it?

It is he.

Who did you think it was?

Use the objective case in the following circumstances.

(A) The pronoun acts as a direct object (*lijdend voorwerp*) or indirect object (*meewerkend voorwerp*).

She drove them to school.

She lent him the book.

He is the person whom I met yesterday on the train.

(B) The pronoun is the object of a preposition (*voorzetsel*).

This is between you and me.

This is between him and her.

This is between the two of them.

For Whom *the Bell Tolls* is a book by Hemmingway.

To whom is the letter addressed?

2.5 Verbs

2.5.1 Verb Tense

2.5.1.1 Verb Tense in Scientific Writing

Guidelines for using correct verb tense are offered in the APA manual (sections 1.07, 2.02, & 2.06). These guidelines are summarized, elaborated on, and illustrated below (section 2.5.1.1). Special verb tense problems for speakers of Dutch are also addressed (section 2.5.1.2).

PRESENT TENSE

The APA Manual's guideline is as follows:

“Use the present tense (e.g., ‘the results of Experiment 2 *indicate*’) to discuss the results and to present the conclusions.” (p. 33)

Below are some additional guidelines and examples.

Use the *Simple Present Tense*:

- To assert a general truth or what the writer believes to be a general truth:

Water freezes at 32°F.

Aggression is always a consequence of frustration.

- To state a definition:

A is defined as the sum of B and C.

- To describe implications of research findings and conclusions:

These results suggest that happiness is related to shoe size.

- To indicate the location of information within an article:

Table 1 displays the group means.

The stimulus items are listed in Appendix 1.

Use the *Continuous Present Tense* (-ing form):

- To denote activities or events that are actually occurring in the outside world at the time of the article's publication.

Researchers are currently examining this question.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

The APA Manual's guidelines are as follows:

“. . . present perfect tense (e.g., “researchers *have shown*”) is appropriate for the literature review and the description of the procedure if the discussion is of past events.” (p. 33)

“Use present perfect tense to express a past action or condition that did not occur at a specific, definite time or to describe an action beginning in the past and continuing to the present.” (p. 43)

Here are some additional guidelines and examples.

Use the *Simple Present Perfect*:

- To describe actions which began in the past and continue into the present:

Scientists have tried to explain this phenomenon since its discovery in 1966.

- To describe completed actions representing something new or relevant:

Researchers at Leiden University have developed a special technique for measuring X.

- To describe completed actions or findings common to a number of studies or researchers:

Researchers have established that X causes Y.

But: When the common action is *explicitly* confined to a specified time period in the past, use the simple past tense:

In the 1960s researchers established that X causes Y.

- To refer to the amount of research in some area:

This topic has received considerable research attention.

Use the *Continuous Present Perfect* (-ing form):

- To describe actions which began at some time in the past and continue in the present (at the time of the article's publication):

Scientists have been trying to explain this phenomenon since its discovery in 1966.

Note: The present perfect continuous in the above sentence stresses the ongoing activity itself (*trying*), whereas use of the simple present perfect (see example further above) depicts the activity in a more abstract, less active sense.

PAST TENSE

The APA Manual's guidelines are as follows:

“Past tense (e.g., “Smith *showed*”) . . . is appropriate for the literature review and the description of the procedure if the discussion is of past events. . . . Use past tense (e.g., “anxiety *decreased* significantly”) to describe the results.”
(p. 33)

“Use the past tense to express an action or condition that occurred at a specific, definite time in the past, as when discussing another researcher’s work and when reporting your results.” (p. 43)

Here are some additional guidelines and examples.

Use the *Simple Past Tense*:

- To describe discrete past research events such as procedures, statistical tests, findings. Such events might pertain to prior studies or to the study being reported.

Phillips (1991) / We / used a procedure developed by Smith et al. (1982).
Ho (1976) / We / found a strong relationship between X and Y.

- To describe arguments, speculations, theories, models, and conclusions advanced in already published work:

Haley (1988) proposed a cognitive model of coping behavior.
Wheeler (1983) concluded that the ICC personality inventory is psychometrically unsound.

But: Use the present perfect to highlight the newness or relevance of an argument, theory, model, etc.:

Haley (1988) has proposed a cognitive model of coping behavior.
Ramires (1991) has offered an alternative interpretation of these findings.

Use the *Continuous Past Tense* (-ing form):

- To indicate that something happened while something else was going on:

While the subjects were completing (or: completed) the spatial skills test, the experimenter pretended to calculate their scores on the verbal skills test.

2.5.1.2 Verb Tense: Four Key Problem Areas for Dutch Speakers

Problem Area #1: Present Noncontinuous vs. Present Continuous

A) What are the Noncontinuous and Continuous Present Tenses?

Present Noncontinuous

Active: Psychologists *study* the human mind.

Passive: The human mind *is studied* by psychologists.

Present Continuous

Active: Psychologists *are studying* the human mind.

Passive: The human mind *is being studied* by psychologists.

B) What Goes Wrong?

Dutch speakers tend to overuse the (English) present continuous. They appear to believe, **mistakenly**, that the present continuous should be used to denote repeated actions or actions that continue over a period of time, and that the present noncontinuous should be reserved for discrete acts.

C) Note the correct distinction between the present noncontinuous and the present continuous:

1. The present noncontinuous is used to express (a) habits, (b) dispositions, (c) usual or typical behavior, (d) general relationships, (e) enduring facts, and (f) enduring activities or situations that are not limited to a particular period.

- (a) X *smokes* a pipe.
- (b) Z *is* careless.
- (c) Y *works* hard.
- (d) Lower wages *lead* to lower tax revenues.
- (e) The sun *rises* in the east.
- (f) They *live* in Leiden.

2. The present continuous is used to indicate that a particular activity is going on at the present time.

(a) X *is smoking* a pipe.
(This sentence does not tell you whether X habitually smokes a pipe; it only tells you that he are doing so now.)

(b) Z *is being* careless.
(This sentence doesn't mean, as 1b does, that Z is generally careless, but that Z is now behaving carelessly.)

(c) Y *is working* hard.
(This sentence doesn't tell you about typical behavior, but about actual behavior in a particular time period.)

(d) *Lower wages are leading to lower tax revenues.*
(This sentence expresses not a general relationship, but a specific relationship that now holds.)

(e) *The sun is rising this morning amidst a beautiful display of color.*
(Again, a specific occurrence rather than a general relationship is referred to here.)

(f) *They are living in Leiden.*
(This sentence suggests that they are living in Leiden for some temporary period; sentence 1f above does not imply that their residence in Leiden is temporary.)

Problem Area #2: Present vs. Present Perfect; Past vs. Past Perfect

A) What Are the Present, Present Perfect, Past, and Past Perfect Tenses?

Present

Active: Psychologists *study* the human mind.

Passive: The human mind *is studied* by psychologists.

Present Perfect

Active: Psychologists *have studied* the human mind.

Passive: The human mind *has been studied* by psychologists.

Past

Active: Psychologists *studied* the human mind.

Passive: The human mind *was studied* by psychologists.

Past Perfect

Active: Psychologists *had studied* the human mind. . . .

Passive: The human mind *had been studied* by psychologists. . . .

B) What Goes Wrong?

1) Present vs. Present Perfect -- Native speakers of Dutch tend to use the present when the present perfect is called for in English. This is because the present is used in Dutch in instances where English requires the present perfect. Namely, in describing an action that occurred over a period of time up to and including the present, the present is permissible in Dutch, but the present perfect is necessary in English. Thus, to indicate that you studied some research question for a two-year period up to and including the present, you might write the following Dutch sentence:

(1) *We onderzoeken deze vraag al twee jaar.*

Direct translation of Sentence 1 would yield (*incorrectly*):

(2) ****We study this question already for two years.****

(3) ****We are studying this question already for two years.****

In English, you must instead use the present perfect (either noncontinuous or continuous) in a translation of Sentence 1:

- (4) *We have studied* this question for two years.
- (5) *We have been studying* this question for two years.

2) Past vs. Past Perfect -- The problem in this case is analogous to the problem described immediately above. Suppose that you want to describe an action that occurred over a period of time up to and including some point in the past, at which time something else happened. Here, you must use the past perfect in English, not the past (which is used in Dutch). Thus, to indicate that you studied some research question for a two-year period up to and including some point in the past, at which time you discovered something new, you might write the following Dutch sentence:

- (5) *We onderzochten de vraag al twee jaar, toen we deze samenhang ontdekten.*

Direct translation of Sentence 5 would yield (**incorrectly**):

- (6) ****We studied** the question already for two years when we discovered this relationship.**
- (7) ****We were studying** the question already for two years when we discovered this relationship.**

Instead use the past perfect (either noncontinuous or continuous):

- (8) *We had studied* the question for two years when we discovered this relationship.
- (9) *We had been studying* the question for two years when we discovered this relationship.

In the above examples the difference between the meaning of the noncontinuous sentences (#3 and #8), on the one hand, and the continuous sentences (#4 and #9), on the other, is not substantial. The noncontinuous verb emphasizes the completion of the action, whereas the continuous verb highlights the activity itself. Note also that the past perfect is not always possible in sentences like Sentence 8; if the span of time of the action denoted by the verb is quite short, or if the verb denotes a specific, concrete activity, the continuous form (as in Sentence 9) may be preferable.

Problem Area #3: Present Perfect vs. Past

Dutch speakers overuse the English present perfect. This is primarily because the present perfect is more widely applicable in Dutch than in English. It seems that the present perfect can be used to convey just about any completed action in Dutch -- but in English this is not the case!

As we will see below, a general rule of thumb to guide you here is that the *present* perfect in English always bears some relation to the *present* time.

When to Use Present Perfect

The present perfect is normally used in English to denote an action that occurred either throughout or on one or more discrete occasions during a period of time up to and including the present moment. Often a specific period of time is mentioned explicitly (in Sentence 10: "since 1975"; in Sentence 11: "since the beginning of X's life").

(10) *Since 1975 researchers have devoted* much attention to this question.

(11) *X has been* to Russia once in his/her life.

(This implies that he or she is still alive).

When no period of time is mentioned explicitly, the present perfect can still indicate (implicitly) some period of time up to and including the present.

Researchers have devoted much attention to this question.

(This implies that they continue to do so now.)

X has been to Russia once.

(This implies that she or he is still alive).

In scientific articles, the present perfect is often used in descriptions of discrete events when there is emphasis on the implications of the event for the present moment -- rather than on the action involved in the event itself.

Rogers and Smith (1988) *have developed* a scale for measuring Y.

Higgins (1990) *has found* that Z is an important factor in Q.

When to Use Past

The past is used to describe events that took place during a period in the past that is now over. When a sentence refers *explicitly* to a past period which is now over, use the past -- never the present perfect!

Correct verb tense:

Researchers devoted much attention to this question in the 1980s.

Van Dijk *published* a study on emotions in 1979.

When they *were* in South America, they *visited* Rio.

Never write:

****Researchers have devoted much attention to this question in the 1980s.****

****Van Dijk *has published* a study on emotions in 1979.****

****When they were in . . . , they *have visited*. . . ****

In the absence of an explicit reference to a period of time, the past will tend to be used to refer to discrete events, with emphasis on description of the action itself rather than on the action's implications for the present time.

Thompson *studied* the influence of group membership on self-esteem.

If -- rather than simply explain what Thompson did -- you want to imply that his or her findings have important implications for the present time (for instance, for the present state of knowledge on a particular topic), you could instead use the present perfect.

Thompson *has studied* the influence of group membership on self-esteem.

Note, finally, that the present perfect is appropriate for referring to what you have done so far in a given article, chapter, book, etc.

In this article/chapter/book we *have examined* the determinants of X.

Unlike in the above example, when you want to describe what you did in a previous chapter, section, or article, you might instead use the past tense. For example, the following sentence might appear in the third chapter of a book:

In chapter 2 we *examined* the determinants of X.

Problem Area #4: Future Action in Temporal/Conditional Subordinate Clauses

The fourth and final "problem area" is in fact minor in comparison with the three discussed above. In fact, in this fourth aspect of verb tense, Dutch and English often "behave" in the same way. Let us begin with some definitions. A subordinate clause is a clause which is introduced by a particular type of conjunction (*voegwoord*). A temporal subordinate clause is a clause introduced by a conjunction that has to do with time. For instance:

When more is known
As soon as these data have been gathered

A conditional subordinate clause is a clause introduced by a conjunction that denotes conditionality. For instance:

If researchers pay more attention to X
Unless this practice is discontinued

The point to be made in this context is demonstrated in the above examples: The main verb in a temporal or conditional subordinate clause which denotes a future action is not expressed in a future tense. Instead, a present tense (present or present perfect) should be used.

2.5.1E Exercise on Verb Tense

Part I

Imagine you are writing the introduction to an article. In what context(s) might you use the following sentences? How might they differ in meaning? The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

Psychologists study X....

Psychologists are studying X....

Psychologists studied X....

Psychologists have studied X....

Psychologists have been studying X....

Part II

Circle one or more of the possible verb forms enclosed in brackets. If more than one form is possible, indicate whether (and if so, how) the forms differ in meaning.

1)X [wears / is wearing / has worn / has been wearing] glasses since he was 11 years old.

2)The minister's attempts to reform the health care system [create / are creating] optimism in some circles.

3)X [usually smokes / is usually smoking] Marlboros, but tonight she [smokes / is smoking] Lucky Strikes.

4)X [lives / is living / has lived / has been living] in Utrecht since 1965.

5)X [lived / has lived / has been living] in Utrecht from 1965 to 1986.

6)X [visited / has visited] New York twice in her life.

7)X [visited / has visited] New York twice during her trip to the U.S.

8)X [visited / has visited] New York in 1988.

9)When X [was / has been] in New York, she [stayed / has stayed] with friends.

10)When Y [arrives / will arrive], we will begin preparing dinner.

11)You [are / are being] stupid.

12)[Have you seen / Did you see] this morning's newspaper?

2.5.2 The Conditional

What Is a Conditional Sentence?

Conditional sentences usually consist of one clause beginning with the word *if* (the "if-clause") and another clause that begins -- either explicitly or implicitly -- with the word *then* (the "then-clause").

The Three Types of Conditional Sentences

There are three distinct types of conditional sentences in English. Each communicates a particular type of message, and each assumes a very particular form. The pattern followed by conditional sentences is much more rigid in English than it is in Dutch. Despite this difference, however, the topic is relatively easy for the non-native speaker. All you need to do is learn the three patterns! Note also that there is one point on which all three types of English conditional sentences converge: The word *would* is never used in the conditional sense in the *if*-clause (which is not the case in Dutch).

(1) The Type I Conditional Sentence

The Type I structure is used (a) when the hypothetical event in the *if*-clause is "not improbable," or (b) when the whole sentence describes a conditional relationship that is generally valid or true. *Not improbable* can mean anything from somewhat probable to certain.

The basic form is:

Type I: ["If" + Present tense] + [{"then"} + Future tense], or vice versa:

If he calls, (then) I will give him your message.
I will give him your message if he calls.
If you heat water, (then) it will boil.
If you practice every day, you will become a better piano player.

Note that in all three types of conditional sentences you can best use a comma between the two clauses if the *if*-clause comes first; if the *if*-clause follows the *then*-clause, it is usually better to use no comma.

Also note the following special cases:

(A) The first example sentence above can also be expressed in the following ways:

If he should call, (then) I will give him your message.
Should he call, I will give him your message.

(B) When a Type I conditional sentence describes a general relationship, it can take either the basic form shown above (1) or the following:

Type Ia: ["If" + Present tense] + [{"then"} + Present tense]

If you heat water, (then) it will boil. [Type I]

or

If you heat water, it boils. [Type Ia]

(C) Type Ia is also used when the "then" clause is imperative (i.e., expresses a command with the word *you* as the implicit subject of the clause), as in the following sentence.

If he stops by, (then) *give* him my message.

(2) The TYPE II Conditional Sentence

The Type II structure is relatively straightforward. It is used when the hypothetical event in the *if*-clause is improbable (often because it did not occur in the past).

Type II:[*if* + past tense] + [{"then"} + *would*], or
[*would*] + [*if* + past tense]

If you *practiced* every day, (then) you *would be* a better piano player.
You *would be* a better piano player if you *practiced* every day.

Another, less common form of the above sentences is the following:

If you *were to practice* every day, you *would be* a better piano player.
(Type IIa)

(3) The TYPE III Conditional Sentence

The Type III structure is used when the hypothetical event in the *if*-clause could have happened in the past but did not. Within Type III there are two subtypes:

(1) When the hypothetical consequence (in the *then*-clause) would have occurred in the past:

Type IIIa:[*if* + Past Perfect] + [{"then"} + *would have*], or vice versa.

If Mary *had been* there, (then) she *would have given* a speech.
Mary *would have given* a speech if she *had been* there.
If you *had practiced* every day, you *would have become* a better piano player.

(2) When the hypothetical consequence (in the *then*-clause) would have occurred in the present:

Type IIIb[*if* + Past Perfect] + [{"then"} + *would*], or vice versa.

If I *had included* a control condition in my design, I *would (now) be able* to answer this question.
I *would be able* to answer this question if I *had included* a control condition in my design.
If I *had practiced* every day, I *would (now) be* a better piano player.

Two Final Remarks on Conditional Sentences

(1) Note that in Type II and Type III sentences, a conditional *would* must not appear in the "if" clause, yet it must appear in the "then" clause. This contrasts with Dutch, where *zou* used in the conditional sense may appear in either or both clauses:

Als je elke dag zou oefenen, zou je beter spelen.

Als je elke dag oefende, zou je beter spelen.

Als je elke dag zou oefenen, speelde je beter.

(2) As already noted, *would* -- used in the conditional sense -- is not used in the "if" clause in any of the three types of conditional sentences. It is possible, however, for *would* to appear in an "if" clause if it is used in a nonconditional sense, for example to express a request in a polite way:

I would greatly appreciate it *if* you *would* send me a reprint of your recent article.

2.5.2E Exercise on Conditional Sentences

Translate Sentences 1-6 using "if" clauses. Circle the correct verb forms in Sentences 7-9. The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

- 1) Als hij zijn medicijnen regelmatig zou innemen, zou ie gezonder worden.
- 2) Als ik in Leiden ben, zal ik je opbellen.
- 3) Als je twee en twee optelt, krijg je vier.
- 4) Als onderzoekers meer aandacht aan dit punt zouden hebben besteed, zouden er minder fouten zijn geweest.
- 5) Als onderzoekers meer aandacht aan dit punt zouden besteden, zouden er minder fouten zijn.
- 6) Als onderzoekers meer aandacht aan dit punt zouden hebben besteed, zouden we nu meer weten.
- 7) If Z [reads / read / will read / would read] the newspaper more often, he would be better informed.
- 8) If Z [read / had read / would read / would have read] the newspaper last Tuesday, he would have seen your article.
- 9) If Z [reads / read / will read / would read] the newspaper every day, he will stay well informed.

2.5.3 The Subjunctive

Although the subjunctive has almost disappeared from modern-day English, it continues to be found in common types of expressions found in formal texts. Therefore some familiarity with this verb form is useful. The present subjunctive and past subjunctive forms are discussed below in separate sections.

2.5.3.1 The Present Subjunctive

The present subjunctive is simply the base form of the verb, that is, the infinitive form without *to* (for instance: *go, be, study*).

For most verbs, the subjunctive differs from the normal "nonsubjunctive" form only in the third person singular:

3rd person singular:

Normal (nonsubjunctive) form: **He takes** the train to work.
Subjunctive form: His boss insists/insisted that he **take** the train.

Other than 3rd person singular (no difference):

Normal (nonsubjunctive) form: **We take** the train to work.
Subjunctive form: Our boss insists/insisted that we **take** the train.

In the case of the verb *to be*, the subjunctive form (*be*) is distinctive in all persons:

Normal (nonsubjunctive) form:

I am on time.
You/we/they are on time.
She/he is on time.

Subjunctive:

It was recommended that
I/you/she/he/we/they **be** on time.

Use of the Present Subjunctive -- *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary* gives the following definition of *subjunctive*: ". . . a verb form . . . that represents a denoted act or state not as fact but as contingent or possible or viewed emotionally (as with doubt or desire)."

Consistent with this definition, the present subjunctive arises mostly in "*that*-clauses" (i.e., clauses introduced by the word *that*) which follow verbs or adjectives that convey notions of recommendation, insistence, intention, and so forth. Examples of such verbs and adjectives are the following:

Verbs which can precede a *that*-clause containing the present subjunctive

insist: The experimenter insisted that the lab **remain** locked.
propose: The experimenter proposed that the lab **be** locked.
recommend: The experimenter recommended that the lab **remain**
 locked.
suggest: The experimenter suggested that the lab **be** locked.

Don't Write: ****The experimenter insisted that the lab is locked.****

Don't Write: **The experimenter insisted that the lab remains locked.**

Adjectives that can precede a *that*-clause containing the present subjunctive

essential: It is **essential** that the subject **see** A before B.
imperative: It is **imperative** that the subject **see** A before B.
important: It is **important** that the subject **see** A before B.
 It is **important** that the subject not **see** A before B.

Don't Write: **It is **essential** that the subject **sees** A before B.**

The Subjunctive & British vs. American English

Use of the subjunctive in sentence contexts like those just described occurs primarily in American English. In British English *should* + *the base form of the verb* is more common. Thus in British English you might see *should remain*, *should be*, and *should see* instead of simply *remain*, *be*, and *see* in the above sentences, for example:

Putative should: The experimenter insisted that the lab **should remain** locked.

This verb form (*should* + . . .) is not referred to as the subjunctive but rather as "the putative *should*."

When Is It Necessary to Use the Subjunctive?

The expressions which can introduce subjective constructions (e.g., the verbs and adjectives listed above) are not always followed by the subjunctive. The subjunctive is only appropriate when the statement contained in the *that*-clause is contrary to fact in one of the senses specified in the above definition of *subjunctive*. For example, if the statement in the *that*-clause conveys factual information, or information about the future that is descriptive rather than normative, then the regular, nonsubjunctive verb form is used. Consider the following three sentences.

Subjunctive: The experimenter suggested that the lab be [or: should be] locked.

Regular: The experimenter suggested that the lab is locked.

Regular: The experimenter suggested that the lab would be locked.

In the first sentence, the experimenter "suggested" (meaning "offered the suggestion," or "recommended") a new reality which does not yet exist, namely a reality in which the lab is locked. Here there is a normative quality to the act of suggesting; that is, the suggestion is about something that ought to happen. Thus the subjunctive (*be*) or the "putative should" (*should be*) is used. The second and third sentences, on the other hand, concern not reality as it should be but reality as it is or will probably be. In the second sentence, the experimenter "suggested" (in the sense of "implied") that the lab is now, in reality, locked. In the third sentence, *would be* conveys "the future in the past." Here the experimenter suggested (again in the sense of "implied") that the lab might in fact be locked. Because they concern present reality and a probable future reality, respectively, the second and third sentences do not use either the subjunctive or the "putative should."

The Past Subjunctive

Definition of the Past Subjunctive

The past subjunctive differs from the normal ("nonsubjunctive") verb form only in the case of the verb *to be*. Because the past subjunctive form of *to be* is *were*, the past subjunctive is only different from the past indicative in the first and third persons singular.

Past nonsubjunctive form:

I/*she/he* *was* selected.
You/*we/they* *were* selected.

Past subjunctive form:

If I/*you/she/he/we/they* *were* selected,

Use of the Past Subjunctive

The past subjunctive is used, like the present subjunctive, to denote acts or states "not as fact but as contingent or possible or viewed emotionally."

The past subjunctive arises mainly in the following two contexts:

(1) In Type II conditional clauses (see section 2.5.2 on conditional sentences) containing the verb *to be*, it is customary to use the past subjunctive:

Type I conditional clause (no past subjunctive -- because the past tense does not arise in this type of conditional sentence):

If he is offered the job, he will take it.
(Here it is not unlikely that he will be offered the job.)

Type II conditional clause (the past subjunctive IS used here -- because *to be* in the past tense arises in the conditional clause):

If he were offered the job, he would take it.
(Here it is not likely that he will in fact be offered the job.)

Type III conditional clause (no past subjunctive -- because *to be* in the (simple) past tense does not arise in the conditional clause):

If he **had been** offered the job, he would have taken it.
(Here it is clear that he was not offered the job; the opportunity is now a factual matter of the past.)

(2) In nonconditional subordinate clauses (*bijzinnen*) introduced by verbs like *suppose*, *wish*, etc.:

She was not in charge. Now suppose that she *were* in fact in charge.
He is not a French citizen. He wishes (that) he *were* a French citizen.

2.5.3E Exercise on the Subjunctive

For each of the sentences listed below, decide whether the verb forms used are correct English. Then correct the sentences that are incorrect (in most cases you will have to supply a subjunctive and/or a "putative should" construction). The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

- 1) It is advisable that persons in the following risk groups are vaccinated against influenza:....
- 2) It is advisable that persons in the following risk groups will be vaccinated against influenza:....
- 3) It is advisable that persons in the following risk groups receive influenza vaccinations:....
- 4) It was advised that persons in the following groups were vaccinated against influenza:....
- 5) We recommend that he takes biology instead of chemistry.
- 6) We recommend that you take biology instead of chemistry.
- 7) They recommended that he took biology instead of chemistry.
- 8) Theory X proposes that $a = b = c$; but what if it proposes that $b = c = d$?
- 9) Most chemists believe that theory X is valid; but what if it is not?
- 10) If theory X had been valid, then our results would have been consistent with it.
- 11) If I will be elected president, my first priority will be health care.
- 12) The committee recommended that AIOs will be paid more.
- 13) The committee recommended that AIOs are paid more.

In the remaining sentences indicate acceptable sentence constructions by circling one or more of the possibilities given between square brackets.

- 14) It is imperative that some future researcher [will examine / examines / examine / should examine / is examining] this question.
- 15) Peters recommended [that Van Dijk is promoted / that Van Dijk be promoted / that Van Dijk should be promoted / Van Dijk to be promoted / Van Dijk's being promoted].
- 16) The chairman proposed [that the speaker limits / that the speaker limit / that the speaker should limit / the speaker to limit / the speaker's limiting] his comments to 15 minutes.

2.5.4 Modal Auxiliaries (*can, may, etc.*)

Modal auxiliaries are a special class of verbs. They include (but are not limited to) the following: *may, might, can, could, should, have to, must, will, shall, would*.

These verbs play a key role in scholarly writing. Whereas the descriptive parts of a scholarly text (e.g., accounts of empirical procedures and results) feature few modal auxiliaries, the more abstract components of a scholarly text (e.g., theoretical rationale, model or theory to be tested, implications of the findings, speculations supported by the findings) usually make heavy use of these verbs. This means that the scholarly writer's success in conveying abstract and nuanced messages may depend on his or her mastery of the modal auxiliaries.

2.5.4.1 Some Points on the Use of Modal Auxiliaries

This section briefly discusses some of the more confusing aspects of use of modal auxiliaries. For a more complete treatment of the topic, see Sanders, Tingloo, and Verhulst (1992, pp. 129-159).

Will and Shall

Will can be used with all persons, whereas *shall* can only be used with first-person subjects.

I/you/he/she/it/we/they *will* arrive at 11:00.

I/we *shall* arrive at 11:00.

Will and *shall* are most commonly used to form the future tense, as shown above. In the formation of future tenses, use of *shall* is much more common in British English; in American English *shall* is rarely used to form a future tense.

Note that *shall* is also used (in both British and American English) in polite suggestions in the first person.

Shall we go now?

Shall I begin my presentation?

May, Might, Maybe, Possibly, Can

Dutch writers often rely on the words *maybe* and *possibly* when it would be better to use the modal auxiliaries *may* and *might*. Note that use of *maybe* and *possibly* in written English will very often yield an awkward sentence.

Don't Write:

****This result is *possibly* [or: *maybe*] explained by the uncertain credibility of the authority figure.****

Better:

This result *could be* [*may be; might be*] attributable to the uncertain. . . .

It is possible [*It may be; It could be*] that this was a consequence of. . . .

In speculation about the implications of your results or the reason why something occurred as it did, *may*, *might*, and *could* are preferable to *can*. Note also that *may* conveys a stronger possibility than *might*, which in turn conveys a stronger possibility than *might possibly*.

Don't Write:

****These results suggest that X *can* be attributable to Y.****

Better:

These results suggest that X *is/may/might/could* be attributable to Y.

Also note that the following constructions are often used to introduce speculation or theoretical proposals.

It *may/might/could* be that. . . .

It is possible that. . . .

It is likely that. . . .

Use *can* to describe theoretical possibilities that are in fact or in some sense "true."

Stress responses *can* be divided into three categories.

Have to

Try not to overuse *have to* in written English. Note however that is perfectly acceptable in spoken English.

Don't Write:

****The subjects had to complete a questionnaire.****

Better:

The subjects completed a questionnaire.

The subjects were asked to complete a questionnaire.

Would and Should

Would and *should* are used frequently in polite requests.

I *would/should* like to thank you for your assistance.

I *would/should* be very grateful if you could send me a reprint of this article.

Note that *should* in sentences like those above is rarely used in American English.

2.5.5 Verbal Constructions

This section on "Verbal Constructions" is focused on the way in which various verb forms connect both with each other and with other types of words in English sentences. The text and exercises in this section have two primary goals: (1) to raise the learner's awareness of the general contexts in which difficult verbal constructions may arise; and (2) to expand the learner's active knowledge of appropriate verbal constructions.

In line with the first goal, an overview of frequent problem areas in verbal constructions is provided. The learner should not expect to be able to memorize all of the information provided. These sections are intended to foster a better overall awareness of (a) the respective contexts in which verbal constructions can go wrong and (b) the meanings conveyed by different types of constructions. Because verbal constructions are often idiomatic (i.e., they are not always rule-governed or otherwise predictable), the overview in this reader is not by itself sufficient to enable the non-native speaker to use verbal constructions correctly. The learner also needs practice with these expressions; this is why a lengthy exercise is provided. Note also that a good learner's dictionary⁶ can be an extremely valuable source of information on verbal constructions.

2.5.5.1 Infinitive and -ing Constructions

This section concerns a major distinction in English: the verb infinitive (e.g., *to study*) versus the *-ing* form of the verb (e.g., *studying*). The use of infinitive and *-ing* constructions poses a challenge for native speakers of Dutch because the English language often makes a distinction between these two forms where the Dutch language does not. Consider the following two sentences.

Infinitive: I look forward to *see* you at the conference.

-ing Form: I look forward to *seeing* you at the conference.

Which one is better? Are both appropriate? As it turns out, **only the second sentence shows acceptable English usage**. The overall aim of this section is to help you to learn to choose correctly and effectively between the infinitive and the *-ing* form in your own writing and speech. The following sections focus on the use of these two verb forms in particular sentence contexts.

Following Verbs: Infinitive or -ing Form?

Some English verbs should be followed by the verb infinitive, others should be followed by the *-ing* form, and still others can be followed by either verb form. It is often extremely difficult for nonnative speakers of English to choose correctly between the infinitive and the *-ing* form following verbs. This is because there are few fixed rules governing this choice. There is only the general rule of thumb that verbs followed by infinitives often refer to more specific actions than do verbs followed by the *-ing* form. Below is an overview of verbs which call for specific types of constructions. Keep in mind that the frequent mistake made by speakers of Dutch is to overuse the infinitive and underuse the *-ing* form.

⁶For instance: *Collin's COBUILD English Language Dictionary* or *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. The *Collin's COBUILD* dictionary is a particularly good source of information on verbal constructions.

A) Verbs that take the construction [VERB + -ING FORM].

admit, anticipate, appreciate, avoid, consider, contemplate, delay, deny, dislike, enjoy, finish, imagine, involve, mind, miss, postpone, practice, recollect, resist, risk, suggest

You should *avoid making* this mistake.

They considered buying the house.

Don't Write:

****You should *avoid to make* this mistake.****

****They *considered to buy* the house.****

B) Verbs that take the construction [VERB + INFINITIVE].

afford, agree, aim, appear, arrange, ask, attempt, choose, claim, consent, decide, decline, demand, be determined, fail, forget, hesitate, hope, learn, manage, need, neglect, offer, plan, prepare, be prepared, pretend, proceed, promise, prove, refuse, seem, tend, threaten, volunteer, want

The results *appear to be* valid.

They *claim to be* professional psychologists.

Note that Pattern B verbs are more common than Pattern A verbs. Note also that the mistake which is most likely to be made by speakers of Dutch is use of the infinitive instead of the *-ing* form following Pattern A verbs.

C) Verbs that take the construction [VERB + OBJECT + INFINITIVE].

advise, allow, ask, beg, cause, command, enable, encourage, entitle, expect, forbid, force, induce, instruct, invite, need, order, permit, persuade, remind, teach, train, urge, want

We *instructed the subjects to begin* with Object C.

The subjects were *invited to begin* with Object C.

D) Verbs that take either of the following constructions: [VERB + INFINITIVE] or [VERB + -ING FORM].

Verbs which can be followed by either the infinitive or the *-ing* form can be classified into four categories:

Category 1 -- The infinitive and the *-ing* form convey roughly the same meaning. The verbs in this category include *begin, start, continue, and cease*.

They continued *to discuss* the matter until dinner.

They continued *discussing* the matter until dinner.

Category 2 -- The infinitive is used if there is a sentence object; the *-ing* form is used if there is no explicit object. (The "object" in the below example is *students*.) The verbs in this category include *advise, allow, and permit*.

The authorities do not permit students *to smoke* on school grounds.

The authorities do not permit *smoking* on school grounds.

Category 3 -- The verbs in this category include *regret, remember, forget, stop, and go on*. Here, the infinitive should be used when the action conveyed by the infinitive follows the action conveyed by the main verb.

He remembered *to lock* the door.
They stopped *to buy* gasoline.

On the other hand, the *-ing* form should be used when the action conveyed by the *-ing* form precedes the action conveyed by the main verb.

He remembered *locking* the door.
They stopped *buying* gasoline.

Category 4 -- The *-ing* form tends to be used to convey enduring states, whereas the infinitive tends to be used to denote more situation-specific, temporary states. The verbs in this category include *hate, like, love, and prefer*.

She *likes going* to the movies.
She would *like to go* to the movies tonight.

Note finally that the verb *try* can also be followed by either the infinitive or the *-ing* form, yet this verb does not fit in any of the above four categories. The infinitive follows *try* when *try* means *attempt*; the *-ing* form follows *try* when it means *experiment with*.

He tried *to analyze* the data with only pencil and paper, but he was unsuccessful.
Then he tried *using* SPSS.

Following Prepositions: *-ing* Form Only

The *-ing* form, but not the infinitive, can follow prepositions.

Most respondents disapproved of *smoking*.
After *completing* the questionnaire, each subject went home.
Many participants said that they looked forward to *attending* the weekly exercise sessions.

The subjects were prevented from *seeing* one another.

The difficulty in this context does not usually concern use of infinitives directly after prepositions: No one is likely to write or say something like: *Most respondents disapproved of to smoke*. Rather, the difficulty lies in knowing (a) that a given verb is used with a preposition and (b) what that preposition is. The biggest challenge is posed by expressions which contain the preposition *to*. The non-native speaker may correctly believe that a given expression contains the word *to*, as in *look forward to*; the potential problem is that *to* may not be recognized as a preposition -- and may thus be taken, incorrectly, as a cue to use the infinitive instead of the *-ing* form. This leads to incorrect constructions like ***I look forward to attend the conference*** (instead of the correct formulation: *I look forward to attending the conference*).

Following Adjectives: [ADJECTIVE + INFINITIVE] or [ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION + -ING FORM]

The infinitive, but not the *-ing* form, can directly follow adjectives.

The scientists were delighted *to hear* that their article had been accepted for publication.

Most subjects found the rules easy *to remember*.

Most subjects were able *to remember* the rules.

Note that some adjectives are followed by [PREPOSITION + -ING FORM].

Most subjects were capable *of remembering* the rules.

Following Nouns: Infinitive or -ing Form

A) To provide descriptive information: [NOUN + -ING FORM] -- The *-ing* form can be placed directly after a noun to provide descriptive information. (When used in this way, the *-ing* form does not convey intention or purpose.) Note that when the *-ing* form serves a descriptive function, there is no comma between the noun and the *-ing* form..

Grey cited a study *investigating* the effects of X on Y.

B) To express purpose: [NOUN + INFINITIVE] or [NOUN + for + -ING FORM] -- Both the infinitive (by itself) and the *-ing* form (preceded by the word *for*) can be placed after nouns to express purpose. In this context infinitives tend to connote specific purpose, for example purpose limited to a particular occasion. The *-ing* form on the other hand tends to suggest a more permanent purpose. Compare the following:

I am looking for a place *to park* my car.

A garage is a place *for parking* cars.

In view of the above explanation, it is preferable to use [*for* + *-ing*] when talking about instruments (or other scientific tools) developed for long-term use.

The XYZ is a questionnaire *for measuring* intelligence.

Don't Write:

****The XYZ is a questionnaire *to measure* intelligence.****

C) [NOUN + INFINITIVE] where no purpose is expressed -- When the construction [NOUN + INFINITIVE] is used to express purpose (as just discussed), the noun could in principle be any noun. Besides such expressions of purpose, however, there are a number of idiomatic expressions in which the infinitive can follow a noun without expressing purpose. In such [NOUN + INFINITIVE] expressions the noun is usually closely related to a verb or adjective.

For example:

Noun related to

VERB He does not want to change. He has no desire to change.
 VERB He refuses to cooperate. His refusal to cooperate made everyone angry.
 VERB He intends to go to school today. He expressed his intention to go to school today.
 ADJECTIVE He is able to solve the problem. No one doubted his ability to solve the problem.

D) [NOUN + PREPOSITION + -ING FORM] where no purpose is expressed -- Note that some idiomatic [NOUN + INFINITIVE] expressions of the type just discussed change to [NOUN + PREPOSITION + -ING FORM] when they are negated.

He expressed his intention to go to school.
 He has no intention of going to school.

Note also that some nouns related to adjectives require a [NOUN + PREPOSITION + -ING FORM] construction (rather than the [NOUN + INFINITIVE] construction discussed above).

The child showed high proficiency in reading
 He took responsibility for guarding the entrance.

Don't Write:

****He took responsibility to guard the entrance.****

Following clauses: Infinitive or -ing Form

A) To express purpose: [CLAUSE + INFINITIVE] -- Infinitives, but not gerunds, can express the purpose of an activity described in a clause. The words *in order* or *so as* are sometimes placed just prior to the infinitive.

We developed this questionnaire to measure X.
 We developed this questionnaire [in order] to investigate X.
 We took Route 26 [so as] to avoid the rush-hour traffic.
 We conducted a study to investigate the effects of X on Y.

B) To provide extra information related to the action conveyed in a clause -- The *-ing* form can be used to provide extra information related to the action conveyed in a clause. In this context, the implicit subject of the *-ing* form (*arguing* in the below example) must be the explicit subject of the main verb of the clause it expands on (*Vega* in the below example).

Vega criticized 11 studies, *arguing* that they were methodologically weak.

Thus Vega not only criticized, but also argued. Note the comma between the clause and the *-ing* form in the above example, which is necessary. Without such a comma, the *-ing* form no longer expands on the preceding clause, but instead simply provides descriptive information about a preceding noun.

Vega cited 11 studies *demonstrating* significant effects.

Note also that the implicit subject of the *-ing* form in the above example (with no comma) is the noun (studies), whereas the implicit subject of the *-ing* form in the preceding example (with no comma) is the explicit subject of the clause (Vega).

As Subject of a Clause: Infinitive or *-ing* form

A) When the main verb of the clause is *be, seem, or appear* -- Here both the infinitive and the *-ing* form can serve as the subject of a clause. The following sentences are thus possible in English, and both have roughly the same meaning.

- (1) *To insult one's boss* is not advisable.
- (2) *Insulting one's boss* is not advisable.

Nevertheless, Sentence 2 is preferable to Sentence 1. Sentences with an infinitive as subject (e.g., Sentence 1 above) are normally rewritten using an "it is" construction. For example, Sentence 1 can better be expressed in the following way:

It is not advisable *to insult one's boss*.

Note also that the *-ing* form is not possible in this sort of construction.

Not Possible:

****It is not advisable *insulting one's boss*.****

B) When the verb is **not** *be, seem, or appear* -- Here only the *-ing* form (not the infinitive) can serve as the subject of a clause.

- (3) *Studying chemistry* gives me a headache.

Don't Write:

*****To study* chemistry gives me a headache.****

Note that Sentence 3 can be expressed with an "it is" construction.

It gives me a headache *to study* chemistry.

As Complement of a Clause: Infinitive or *-ing* Form

Both the infinitive and the *-ing* form can be used as complements (that is, a predicate noun following *to be* or another verb that functions like *to be*).

- (4) Their intention is *to surprise* her with the news.
- (5) His favorite leisure activity is *camping* in the wilderness.

When functioning as complements (as in Sentences 4 and 5), the infinitive and the *-ing* form tend to differ in their generality. As demonstrated in Sentences 4 and 5, infinitives are often used to convey particular actions, whereas the *-ing* form tends to denote an action conceived of at a more abstract level.

Also note that it is considered good practice in English to be consistent in the verbal form used if both the subject and the direct object or complement of a clause are verb forms.

A way to improve our knowledge of this phenomenon is to investigate X in another context.

Improving circumstances in multi-ethnic classrooms will require preparing teachers for ethnic diversity.

2.5.5.2 Verbs Introducing a That-Clause

A common mistake made in English texts written by Dutch academics is the use of *that*-clauses following verbs where this is not possible. Note the following categories of English verbs. Note that the lists of example verbs in each category are not exhaustive.

Verbs which can be followed by a *that*-clause: *admit, agree, announce, argue, ascertain, assume, believe, claim, conclude, confirm, declare, demonstrate, discover, doubt, ensure, estimate, expect, imagine, imply, indicate, know, maintain, note, observe, posit, presume, propose, recognize, recommend, report, reveal, suspect, state, think, understand.*

Findley and Ickes (1992) claim that their measure is superior.

Verbs which can be followed by a *that*-clause **only** in the presence of an indirect object: *assure, inform, notify, persuade, reassure, remind, tell*

For example:

The experimenter *informed* the subjects that the test would last 15 minutes.

The experimenter *reminded* the subjects that. . . .

Don't Write:

****The experimenter *informed* that the test would last 15 minutes.****

****The experimenter *reminded* that. . . .****

Verbs which can **never** be followed by a *that*-clause: *avoid, cause, conceal, discuss, enable, encourage, facilitate, ignore, obstruct, overlook, preclude, prevent, protect, stimulate*

The weak component *caused* the whole structure to collapse.

Not ****The weak component caused that the whole structure collapsed.****

The politician *concealed* the fact that he had been involved in the transaction.

The politician *concealed* his involvement in the transaction.

Not ****The politician concealed that he had been involved in the transaction.****

Shear (1990) *overlooked* the possibility that X could have caused Z.

Not ****Shear (1990) overlooked that X could have caused Z.****

2.5.5E Exercise on Verbal Constructions

For each sentence, choose the correct verbal construction from the possibilities listed between brackets. More than one verbal construction may be correct. If you are unsure about a sentence, try using a learner's dictionary to find the best solution. The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

- 1) They have no desire [to leave / leaving / of leaving].
- 2) They have no intention [to attend / attending / of attending] the meeting.
- 3) They announced their intention [to attend / attending / of attending] the meeting.
- 4) The interventions were aimed [to oppose / to opposing / at opposing] the negative effects of employee burn-out.
- 5) The experimenter admitted [that the procedure had involved deception / the procedure to have involved deception].
- 6) The author admitted [that he had falsified / to falsify / to have falsified / having falsified / to having falsified] the results.
- 7) The eminent professor announced [that she would retire / to retire / being retiring / retiring / her retirement].
- 8) She was accused [to be / being / for being / of being] overly ambitious.
- 9) The results appear [that they are / to be / be / being / /] consistent with previous findings.
- 10) Walters insisted [to replicate / replicating / for replicating / on replicating] the findings before attempting [to publish / publishing] them.
- 11) Rich and Blinder did not succeed [to show / showing / at showing / in showing] that their theory could explain these data.
- 12) The committee announced [that it was ready / to be ready / being ready / its readiness] to begin discussions on the issue.
- 13) Following this procedure will prevent [that experimenter effects occur / experimenter effects to occur / experimenter effects occurring / experimenter effects from occurring].
- 14) We decided [that three IVs (sh/w)ould be included / to include three IVs] in the design.
- 15) It was decided [that three IVs (sh/w)ould be included / to include three IVs] in the design.
- 16) Jones claimed [that X is the cause of Y; X to be the cause of Y / X being the cause of Y].
- 17) Ellis has proposed a method [to measure / of measuring] the effects of this variable.
- 18) Jones claimed [that he was an expert on this topic / to be an expert on this topic / being expert on this topic].

- 19) Reynolds insisted [that A is the cause of / A to be the cause of / A to cause] B.
- 20) Researchers are responsible [to ensure / for ensuring] the safety of their subjects.
- 21) These results imply [that Q underlies the Z effect / Q to underlie the Z effect / Q underlying the Z effect].
- 22) He is not accustomed [to receive / to receiving] such high praise.
- 23) STP is a technique [to enhance / for enhancing] the recall of eyewitnesses.
- 24) They were delighted [to hear / hearing] that their research had been well received.
- 25) Their intention is [to surprise / surprising] her with the news.
- 26) His favorite leisure activity is [to camp / camping] in the wilderness.
- 27) Schwartz attempted [that he would demonstrate / to demonstrate / demonstrating] that Miller's theory is untenable.
- 28) Most participants looked forward [to attend / to attending] the weekly training sessions.
- 29) The researchers who choose [that they study / to study / studying / for studying] this topic tend to have a personal interest in it.
- 30) Volsky sought [that he would persuade / to persuade / persuading / for persuading] his readers that too much knowledge in this area could be dangerous.
- 31) The inconsistency of the results of research in this area prevents us [that we can / to be able to / being able to / against being able to / from being able to] draw any firm conclusions.
- 32) Few researchers have been successful [to demonstrate / in demonstrating] such an effect in the laboratory.
- 33) They were able [to perform / performing / of performing] the calculations.
- 34) They were capable [to perform / performing / of performing] the calculations.
- 35) [To smoke / Smoking] cigarettes can cause lung cancer.
- 36) These patients avoided [that they would get / to get / getting] into arguments with the nursing staff.
- 37) She recommended [that we adopt / to adopt / adopting] Wier's method.
- 38) Morris denied [that she had falsified / to have falsified / having falsified] her data.
- 39) They continued [to discuss / discussing] the matter until 17:00.

- 40) The authorities should not permit [to eat / eating] on the train. The authorities should not permit people [to eat/ eating] on the train.
- 41) He did not remember [that he had locked / to lock / locking / having locked] the door.
- 42) We stopped [to buy / buying] cigarettes.
- 43) He tried [to climb / climbing] over the fence. He failed, however, because the fence was too tall. So he then tried [to use / using] a ladder to get over the fence.

Extra Sentences for Correction (some sentences may need no correction):

- 44) The speaker reminded that lunch would follow his address.
- 45) The authors discussed that lawfulness and determinism are not equated in the dynamical systems approach.
- 46) We had trouble to select an appropriate statistical method.
- 47) The teacher told that there would be no final exam.
- 48) His supervisor advised to pursue the project.
- 49) Some subjects had difficulty to follow the instructions.
- 50) These findings compel to conclude that theory J is not valid under these circumstances.
- 51) The legal proceedings obstructed that there could be further research.

Extra Sentences for Translation:

- 52) Wij lieten de computers repareren.
- 53) Roken op school is verboden.
- 54) Het was niet te geloven.

Part 3
Punctuation

PART 3: Problem Areas in English Punctuation for Dutch Speakers

This section supplements sections 3.01–3.09 and 3.11 in the APA manual. The focus is on punctuation errors commonly made by speakers of Dutch.

3.1 apostrophe / ' / apostrof

(A) It is best not to use apostrophes (single quotation marks) to set off quotations ('like this'). APA style requires that you instead use regular ("double") quotation marks to surround quoted material (except when dealing with quoted material within quoted material; see 3.11.A).

(B) In English the apostrophe is primarily used to put nouns into the possessive case. With singular nouns and plural nouns that do not end in *s*, one forms the possessive by adding '*s*'; for plural nouns that end in *s*, one forms the possessive by adding only an apostrophe.

Although forming the possessive might not seem like an advanced topic, three types of mistakes are made even by relatively experienced Dutch writers of English.

Mistake #1: The possessive is formed (as one might in Dutch) by adding *s* rather than '*s*'.

Wrong: Van Dijk*s* (1991) study drew a rash of criticism.

Right: Van Dijk'*s* (1991) study drew a rash of criticism.

Mistake #2: An apostrophe is used when forming a plural (as one might in Dutch with nouns of foreign origin that end in a vowel).

Wrong: Each subject was shown four photo'*s*.

Right: Each subject was shown four photos.

An apostrophe is never used in English to form the plural of nonabbreviated words. Sometimes writers form the plural of abbreviations and numbers by adding '*s*'; however, this is not APA style.

Not Recommended / Not APA Style: 1960'*s*, ECG'*s*, cm'*s*

Recommended / APA Style: 1960*s*, ECG*s*, cm

Mistake #3: The possessive of plural nouns that do not end in *s* is formed incorrectly (i.e., not in accordance with the simple rule described at the beginning of this section [3.1.B]).

Wrong: The children*s*' reading skills were exceptionally good.

Right: The children'*s* reading skills were exceptionally good.

3.2 colon / : / dubbele punt

(A) Colons found in text should be followed by two spaces. (*But*: in APA style use just one space.) A colon may be followed by only one space in two circumstances: when the colon separates (1) the components of a title (e.g., **Jaws: Book II**) or (2) the publisher location from the publisher in a reference list (e.g., **New York: Sage**).

(B) In APA style, a colon (rather than a period) should be used to separate hour from minutes when reporting time of day.

The meeting will begin at 10:00 a.m.

(C) Colons are often mistakenly used when a semicolon is actually called for, and vice versa. This problem arises when a punctuation mark is needed to connect two independent clauses (*onafhankelijke hoofdzinnen*), a function that both the semicolon and the colon (but not the comma—see 3.3.B.1) can fulfill. The colon and the semicolon are usually not interchangeable.

(1) Colons are used if the relationship between the two independent clauses is such that the second clause illustrates, elaborates on, specifies, or extends the meaning of the first clause.

All of the existing research points to the same conclusion: More attention should be focused on the needs of foster parents.

Smith's prediction was supported: Subjects who were closely supervised did perform more poorly than subjects who worked independently.

(2) Semicolons can be used to emphasize that two independent clauses (i.e., clauses that could themselves stand alone as sentences) are closely related. The independent clauses linked by a semicolon may be related in a variety of ways, the primary restriction being that the semicolon should not be used if the relationship between two clauses is one that calls for a colon (see above, 3.2.C.1).

The subjects had been deprived of food for 24 hours; some of them were therefore feeling weak.

Subjects in the treatment condition participated in mental health sessions; subjects in the no-treatment condition did not.

The child is an avid reader; nevertheless, he performs very poorly in school.

Periods, but not colons, could be used instead of the semicolons in the above examples.

3.3 comma / , / komma

(A) Commas That Should Not Be: Two Frequent Pitfalls

(1) A single comma must not separate the fundamental grammatical elements of a clause (e.g., the subject, the verb, the direct object).

The mouse lost its appetite.
This is a well-known phenomenon.

In simple sentences, such as those above, this rule works the same way in both English and Dutch. However, differences arise in more complicated sentences. For example, when the subject or the direct object of a clause is itself a clause rather than a simple noun, the above-mentioned "no-comma" rule continues to apply in English, whereas a similarly constructed Dutch sentence might contain a single comma.

Ik ben verteld, dat het examen moeilijk zal zijn.
I have been told that the exam will be difficult.

Dat hij eindelijk aankwam, was een opluchting voor iedereen.
That he finally arrived was a relief to everyone.

In the first sentence, the clause *that the exam will be difficult* functions grammatically as a direct object. In the second example, the clause *that he finally arrived* functions as the subject of the sentence. A comma is not appropriate in either English sentence.

Another type of sentence in which a comma might be appropriate in Dutch but is not acceptable in English is the following.

Hij kreeg het bericht, dat hij de cursus moest volgen.
He received the message that he would have to take the course.

The clause in the above sentence serves as a restrictive appositive that further identifies the direct object, *the message* (see 3.3.C.1).

(2) Do not use commas to separate compound (i.e., pairs of) sentence subjects, verbs, direct or indirect objects, or phrases (unless a comma is necessary to prevent confusion).

Compound subject:	John and Peter walked to school.
Compound verb:	Peter plays hockey and writes short stories.
Compound direct object:	The students read books and magazines.
Compound phrase:	They drove over the river and through the woods.

This basic guideline also applies when numbers are used to set off the two elements of a compound structure.

The purposes of this study were (1) to identify the causes of this problem and (2) to develop methods for combatting it.

In the case of compound noun clauses, one has more discretion. A sentence such as the following might be written either with or without the comma that separates the compound clauses.

He said that he would be late, and that we should begin the meeting without him.

(B) Using Commas to Separate Clauses

(Case 1) Two Independent Clauses

An independent clause is a clause that is itself a complete sentence. A comma should separate two independent clauses when these two clauses are connected by a coordinating conjunction (e.g., *and*, *but*, *or*).

The lawyer made a very strong closing argument, but his client nevertheless lost the case.

Two independent clauses that are not connected by a conjunction constitute two complete sentences and can be joined with a semicolon, a colon, or a period (depending on the relationship between the clauses), but not with a comma.

The lawyer made a very strong closing argument; his client nevertheless lost the case.

The lawyer made a very strong closing argument. His client nevertheless lost the case.

Thus, even though linking two complete sentences with only a comma might be permissible in Dutch, it is not acceptable in English. Commas in place of the semicolons in the following sentences would not be correct.

Nine of the patients smoked cigarettes regularly; six did not.
On the one hand this questionnaire can be administered quickly and economically; on the other hand it is imprecise and unreliable.

(Case 2) An Independent Clause and an Adverbial Clause

(a) When an adverbial clause PRECEDES an independent clause, separate the two clauses with a comma.

While the subjects were viewing a film, they heard a loud scream in the adjacent room.

Although the results were unexpected, they were not without precedent.

(b) When an adverbial clause FOLLOWS an independent clause, comma usage depends on whether the adverbial clause can be considered restrictive or nonrestrictive: Restrictive clauses, which are essential to the meaning of the main (independent) clause because they in some way (e.g., in context, time, or manner) limit the generality of the statement in the main clause, are not set off with commas; nonrestrictive clauses, which merely provide additional information and can be omitted without altering the essential meaning of the main clause,

must be set off with commas. Compare the following two sentences, each of which contains an adverbial clause introduced by the conjunction *when*. In the first sentence the adverbial clause is nonrestrictive, whereas in the second sentence the adverbial clause is restrictive. Thus, although a comma should separate the two clauses in the first sentence, no comma belongs in the second sentence.

Little was known about human perception until the 20th century, when systematic experimentation began.

One should not use elaborate experimental designs when simpler ones will suffice.

In the first sentence the independent clause (*knowledge about human perception was quite limited until the 20th century*) can clearly stand on its own without alteration of the basic meaning of the original sentence. The adverbial clause (*when systematic experimentation began*) provides additional information but does not essentially change the meaning of the independent clause. Thus the adverbial clause is considered nonrestrictive and is set off with a comma.

In the second sentence, however, the meaning of the independent clause (*one should not use elaborate experimental designs*) by itself is quite different from what the two clauses together convey. The adverbial clause (*when simpler ones will suffice*) sets the condition under which the statement in the independent clause is said to be true. Therefore, the adverbial clause in the second example is restrictive and not set off with a comma.

Clauses introduced by *although*, *though*, *even though*, and *whereas*, are usually nonrestrictive; those that begin with *if*, *because*, *unless*, and *except* are usually restrictive.

Now consider the following pair of sentences.

Over 100 patients came to the orientation session.

After it was announced that participation would entail 15 weekly visits to the lab, only 16 persons were willing to take part.

Suppose that you want to combine these two sentences into one sentence (choosing the word *but* to link them). The resulting sentence would be punctuated as follows.

Over 100 patients came to the orientation session, but after it was announced that participation would entail 15 weekly visits to the lab, only 16 persons were willing to take part.

The mistake that often gets made with sentences structured like the one above is that a third comma is placed between the words *but* and *after*—do not do this. This same sort of punctuation also applies when linking just two clauses, the second of which begins with a phrase set off with a comma.

Over 100 patients came to the orientation session, but after hearing what participation in the study would entail, they all declined to take part.

(3) Relative Clauses

Relative clauses are clauses that are introduced by a relative pronoun (viz., *which, that, who, whom, or whose*). Two types of relative clauses can be distinguished on the basis of their antecedent (i.e., what the relative pronoun refers to). In the case of the first type of relative clause, the antecedent is an entire clause.

One research assistant did not administer the questionnaire according to the established protocol, which meant that one third of the data were unusable.

The relative clause in the above sentence is *which meant that one third of the data were unusable*. The relative pronoun, *which*, refers to the entire preceding clause (*one research assistant did not administer the questionnaire according to the established protocol*). Relative clauses of this type always begin with the word *which* and are always preceded by a comma.

In the case of the second type of relative clause, the antecedent of the relative pronoun is a noun rather than an entire clause. Relative clauses of this second type can in turn be either nonrestrictive or restrictive. Nonrestrictive relative clauses, which provide additional information about the antecedent but do not provide information about the identity of the antecedent, are set off with commas. Restrictive relative clauses, which help identify the antecedent, are not set off with commas.

- Nonrestrictive: **Socialists, who call for the abolition of private property, should be arrested.**
- Restrictive: **Socialists who call for the abolition of private property should be arrested.**

The relative clause in both of the above sentences is *who call for the abolition of private property*. Although the two sentences differ only in the presence or absence of a pair of commas, they differ significantly in meaning.

In the first sentence the nonrestrictive relative clause (indicated by the presence of commas) merely provides additional information about its antecedent, *socialists*; the relative clause does not specify a subgroup of socialists. The sentence asserts that (a) all socialists call for the abolition of private property and (b) all socialists should be arrested.

In the second sentence the restrictive relative clause (indicated by the absence of commas) serves to identify further the group to which the statement in the main clause applies. Thus, in the second sentence it is stated that only the subset of all socialists who call for the abolition of private property should be arrested.

When a relative clause falls in the middle of a sentence, you have only two choices: You may use either two commas (if the relative clause is nonrestrictive) or zero commas (if the relative clause is restrictive) but never just one comma. (If a nonrestrictive relative clause falls at the end of a sentence, then it is of course preceded by one comma and followed by a period.) Thus, in sentences containing relative clauses, acceptable punctuation in Dutch is not always acceptable in English.

1 comma in Dutch: Het artikel dat wij samen geschreven hebben, zal volgende maand gepubliceerd worden.

0 commas in English: The article that we wrote together will be published next month.

(C) Other Rules Governing Comma Usage

(1) Restrictive and Nonrestrictive Appositives

Appositives are words or groups of words that act as nouns and either elaborate on or further define another noun. A nonrestrictive appositive (which merely provides additional information about its referent) needs to be set off with commas, whereas a restrictive appositive (which distinguishes its referent from other members of the group denoted by the referent) should not be set off with commas. The appositives in the following two sentences are underlined. (The appositive in the first sentence is nonrestrictive; that in the second sentence is restrictive.)

Wilson, a behaviorist, was the first to raise this question.
The behaviorist Wilson was the first to raise this question.

(2) Parenthetical Elements

Parenthetical elements are words or groups of words (e.g., nouns, phrases, clauses) that do not themselves constitute the main elements of a clause (e.g., subject, verb, direct object) and could be omitted without changing the essential meaning of the clause. Such groups of words can be set off with commas, as well as with parentheses or dashes. Although (as discussed above in 3.3.A) a single comma cannot separate the basic elements of a sentence (e.g., subject, verb, direct object), groups of words enclosed in pairs of commas may be placed between these elements. The primary thing to remember with parenthetical elements is that the removal of these words and the commas that surround them must leave you with a sentence that is sensible, appropriately punctuated, and grammatically correct.

Even the native speaker, to say nothing of foreigners, has difficulty with this grammatical distinction.

(3) Prepositional Phrases

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition (*voorzetsel*) followed by a noun or a group of words which together function as a noun. Examples: *under the table, in the 20th century, before the revolution.*

When a prepositional phrase FOLLOWS the subject of a clause, it is usually not set off with a comma. When a prepositional phrase PRECEDES the subject of a clause, it is usually up to the writer to decide whether to set it off with commas. Thus, a comma would not be appropriate in the first of the sentences below but is optional in the second.

Five studies of this type were published at the turn of the century.
In the 19th century, this practice was widespread.

If a prepositional phrase preceding a main clause is particularly long or complex, it is advisable to set it off with a comma. If a prepositional phrase precedes a main clause in

which subject and verb are inverted, the prepositional phrase should not be followed by a comma.

Between Ohio and New York is the state of Pennsylvania.

(4) Series of Three or More Elements: The Serial Comma

In series of three or more elements (clauses, phrases, subjects, verbs, objects, etc.) one can use one of two forms: **A, B and C**; or **A, B, and C**. The former pattern tends to be used more in British English, whereas the latter pattern – referred to as the serial comma – tends to be favored in American English. (APA style calls for the latter pattern.) Above all be consistent in using one or the other pattern in a given piece of writing unless particular circumstances call for inconsistency. The following sentence illustrates how the *A, B and C* style can create confusion.

The travelers were renewed by the sound of the wind, the sight of the mountains and sparkling river and the smell of fresh air.

If the elements in a series contain commas, it is advisable (required in APA style) to separate the elements using semicolons rather than commas:

The issues addressed by the speaker included: the nature, prevalence, and severity of discrimination; the causes and consequences of unemployment; and the relationship between discrimination and unemployment.

(5) Series of Two or More Adjectives

Use a comma to separate two or more adjectives that modify the same noun if they are "coordinate in thought," that is, if placing the word and between the two adjectives results in no change in meaning. If, on the other hand, the adjective preceding a noun and the noun together convey more than simply the literal meaning of their combination, then treat the adjective and noun as though they together formed one noun (i.e., do not place a comma between a second adjective and the adjective that precedes the noun).

The fresh, green leaves in springtime are a welcome sight.

The fresh green tea was delicious.

(Green tea is the permanent term denoting a particular type of Chinese tea.)

(6) Direct vs. indirect speech.

Use a comma before direct speech, but not before indirect speech:

She said, "I have found the dictionary," and then hung up the phone.

She said that she had found the dictionary and then hung up the phone.

(7) Discourse Linkers

American usage favors enclosing the following expressions in commas when they are located at the very beginning of a clause: *indeed, therefore, accordingly, consequently, yet, hence,*

however, for example, that is, thus, namely, e.g., i.e., for instance, for example, in my/X's opinion, in my/X's view, according to X. There is a certain amount of flexibility here, however. The writer may elect to omit such commas in some circumstances, such as when a sentence is simple and direct and contains few words.

(8) Numbers

Use commas to separate groups of three digits in numbers of four or more digits (e.g., 1,000,000). Do not apply this rule to page numbers, years or street numbers.

Do not use commas to denote decimal points; instead use periods.

(9) Titles

Use a comma between a proper name and a title (e.g., Jill Smith, Professor of Psychology; John Smith, Ph.D.).

(10) Dates

Dates and times can be punctuated in the following ways.

The twins were born at 15:00 on Tuesday, August 14, 1962, in Zwolle.

The twins were born at 15:00 on August 14, 1969, in Zwolle.

The twins were born at 15:00 on 14 August 1969 in Zwolle.

The twins were born in August, 1969, in Zwolle.

The twins were born in August 1969 in Zwolle.

The twins were born in 1969 in Zwolle.

3.4 dash /– /gedachtenstreep

(A) Do not overuse dashes.

(B) The dash appears in final text as a stripe that is longer than a hyphen. In manuscripts to be submitted to an APA journal, one indicates a dash by typing two hyphens (with no spaces on either side).

Six subjects--three in each condition--failed to complete the follow-up survey.

When preparing a camera-ready manuscript, you can produce a character that looks like a dash by holding down the [Alt]-key while typing the number 196 on the numeric keypad on the far righthand side of your DOS-style computer keyboard (make sure that [Num-Lock] is off).

Six subjects – three in each condition – failed to complete the follow-up survey.

3.5 exclamation point /! / uitroepteken

(A) Do not overuse exclamation points. For the most part they do not belong in scientific writing.

(B) An exclamation point should be preceded by zero spaces; it should be followed by two spaces when located the end of a sentence. (*But:* in APA style use just one space.)

3.6 hyphen / - / streepje

In order to use hyphens correctly, one needs an understanding of the three types of words in which they occur: (A) compound nouns, (B) compound adjectives, and (C) prefixed words.

(A) Compound Nouns

Compound nouns are nouns that consist of two or more distinct words. There are three types of compound nouns. An open compound noun consists of two or more separate words that are written as separate words but together form a distinct word (e.g., *false alarm*, *health care*). A hyphenated compound noun is like an open compound noun except that the component words are connected with a hyphen (e.g., *life-style*, *time-sharing*). A solid compound noun is a single word that is in fact a combination of more than one word (e.g., *homework*, *notebook*).

Many solid compound nouns in Dutch are written as open compound nouns in English. The evolution of a new compound term from an open to a hyphenated and finally to a closed compound noun proceeds only very slowly in English.

If you are uncertain about whether a particular pair or group of words that function together as a noun should be written as an open compound noun, as a hyphenated compound noun, or as a solid compound noun, look for the term in the dictionary. (Be aware however that dictionaries often disagree on the status of compound nouns. If you want to apply APA style, use the most recent edition of the *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*.) Terms that should be written as hyphenated compound nouns or as solid compound nouns will appear in the dictionary as such. Many open compound nouns are also listed in the dictionary. If the term in question does not appear in the dictionary, then it should probably be written as an open compound noun. There is one important exception to the above procedure, however: If the term in question is specific to your scientific discipline, then follow the consensus in the scientific literature (if such consensus exists).

Be aware of four additional points about compound nouns:

(1) There is one special type of compound noun that you probably will not find in the dictionary: a combination of two nouns that convey the parallel roles or statuses of an individual. Such compound nouns should be hyphenated (e.g., *priest-king* and *participant-observer*).

(2) Almost all compound words (both compound nouns and compound adjectives) that contain the word *self* are hyphenated (e.g., *self-concept*, *self-conscious*). There are however a few exceptions to this rule: *selfdom*, *selfhood*, *selfless*, and *selfsame*.

(3) Many verbs are commonly used together with a particular preposition. These verbs are referred to as *phrasal verbs*. Such verb-preposition combinations should be written as two separate words when they function as a verb.

The thieves broke in during the night.

We were asked to stand by so that help would be available if needed.

We handed out 231 questionnaires.

When the same words are used to form a noun, however, they should be written (and will probably be listed in the dictionary) as either hyphenated or closed compounds.

The break-in occurred during the night.

The standby physician was himself sick that evening.

The handout contained information about the strike.

(4) Numbers between twenty-one and ninety-nine (except of course the tens units themselves – twenty, thirty, etc.) are written as hyphenated compounds.

Forty-eight thousand three hundred and fifty-six persons attended the football game.

The football game drew 48,356 spectators.

(B) Compound Adjectives

A compound adjective is two or more words that together modify a noun.

middle-class children

3rd-grade pupils

Compound adjectives are unlike compound nouns in that they do not usually appear in the dictionary. There are a number of rules and guidelines governing the hyphenation of compound adjectives, but in the end it is the writer who must weigh the various considerations and decide. Section 3.10 (pp. 55-57) in the APA manual (3rd ed.) presents a number of useful guidelines.

Note that when fractions and the word *t test* are used as nouns, they should not be hyphenated; when they are used as adjectives, however, they should be hyphenated.

One fourth of the subjects were psychology majors.

Each group member was to receive **a one-fourth share** of the group's earnings.

Separate **t tests** were carried out to evaluate between-group differences.

The **t-test** results are displayed in Table 4.

Also be aware that abbreviations and acronyms are not connected to nouns with hyphens in English. This seems to be common practice in Dutch.

Dutch: MMPI-scores, IQ-toets

English: MMPI scores, IQ test

(C) Prefixed Words

Prefixes are groups of letters that can be attached to the beginning of a word. (Examples include co-, anti-, mid-, non-.) There is a trend in the U.S. away from using hyphens between prefixes and the words they precede. This trend is definitely evident in APA style. See the APA manual (5th ed., section 3.11 and Tables 3.2 and 3.3) for a number of specific guidelines on the hyphenation of prefixed words. The dictionary also lists many prefixed words. There is not always consensus among English dictionaries on whether particular prefixed words should be hyphenated, however, so make sure that the dictionary you use is appropriate (i.e., up-to-date and published in the country where you plan to publish your work). Note, too, that APA style requires that the following words be written without hyphens, even though the American English spell-check in your word processor may reject them: *posttest*, *preexperimental*.

3.7 parentheses / () / haakjes

In English, parentheses are generally used to set off information that is relevant, yet not essential, to the meaning of the sentence.

In our interpretation of these findings (which at odds with that of King [1988]) self-perception is of central importance.

Removal of parentheses together with the words they enclose should always result in a meaningful and properly punctuated sentence; in addition, the resulting sentence may not differ essentially in meaning from the original sentence.

This partially explains why you do not find parentheses used in English, as they are in Dutch, to convey the idea of "and/or," that is, the idea that the passage should be read both with and without the element inside the parentheses. Consider the following Dutch sentence.

Er is (inter)nationale belangstelling voor dit onderwerp.

In a correctly written English version of the above sentence, the two possibilities have to be written out, as in the following sentence.

There is national and international interest in this topic.

One situation in which parentheses do convey an "and/or" meaning in English is "singular and/or plural" endings.

The lottery winner(s) will make a television appearance on June 1.

The above sentence suggests that it is not yet known whether there will be one or more than one winners.

3.8 percentage sign / % / procentageteken

A percentage sign should not be preceded by a space (e.g., 40%, not 40 %).

3.9 period / . / punt

(A) At the end of a sentence, a period is followed by two spaces (*but* in APA style just one space).

(B) For APA guidelines on the use of periods, refer (in the 5th ed.) to sections 3.27, 3.36-3.39, and section 3.46. Pay particular attention to the following points.

(1) Note the following about periods in abbreviations:

- a) Use periods plus a space following initials in names (e.g., **R. D. Keller**).
- b) Use periods (not followed by a space) in abbreviations of geographical names (e.g., **U.S., U.K.**), except in the case of the abbreviations for individual states within the U.S., which do not contain any periods (e.g., **NY, CA**).
- c) Note how to type degrees and titles: B.A., M.A., Ph.D., Prof., Dr.

(2) Place periods (and commas) at the very end of a quotation inside the closing quotation mark. Do this even if the original quote does not contain the period (or comma).

"The 1990s," Jackson (1988) predicted, "will see a resurgence of interest in behaviorism."

(3) Use periods (not commas) to represent a decimal point; use commas (not periods) to separate groups of three digits in most numbers greater than 999 (e.g., $p < .05$; 14.5 cm; 1,000,000).

(4) Use a period followed by one space (rather than two) following the various elements of a reference.

3.10 question mark / ? / vraagteken

(A) A question mark should be preceded by zero spaces and followed by two spaces (*but* in APA style by just one space).

(B) Do not use a question mark when you state a question within a sentence that is itself grammatically not a direct question.

This study was designed to investigate whether self-esteem influences the grammatical structure of speech. (Use no question mark.)

The central research question was: Does self-esteem influence the grammatical structure of speech? (A question mark is necessary here because the question is stated in an independent clause that could stand alone as a direct question.)

3.11 quotation marks / " " / aanhalingstekens

(A) Always use double quotation marks unless material that you have quoted and enclosed in double quotation marks contains text that was itself enclosed in quotation marks in the original; in such a case the material that was set off with quotation marks in the original should be enclosed in single quotation marks.

Mills (1976) described this phenomenon as "quite extraordinary, something that amounts to a 'distrust-self' strategy."

(B) Use quotation marks to set off the title of an article or book chapter mentioned in text (even though quotation marks are not used to set off article and chapter titles in a reference list).

3.12 semicolon / ; / puntkomma

The use of the semicolon in English is similar to its use in Dutch.

See 3.2.C above for a discussion of the distinct functions of semicolons and colons.

Part 4
Sentence Structure

4.1 Basic Sentence Structure

4.1.1 An Overview of Basic Principles of Sentence Structure

This section explains two pitfalls in sentence structure. These nongrammatical “sentence” forms appear to be tolerated (at least sometimes) in Dutch, but are unacceptable in English.

Consider the definitions of “clause” and “sentence.”

A) Clause

A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a verb. For example:

I analyzed the data.

A main clause (*hoofdzin*) is a clause that can stand by itself as a complete sentence. It does not function as a noun, verb, or adjective in relation to another clause in the same sentence.

I analyzed the data.

A subordinate clause (*bijzin*) is a clause that functions as a noun, adjective, or adverb. A subordinate clause cannot stand on its own as a sentence. A subordinate clause is introduced by a subordinating conjunction (e.g., *while, although, when, which, that*), which links the subordinating clause to the clause it modifies or otherwise plays a role in.

While I analyzed the data, the coauthor went on vacation.

B) Sentence

A sentence is a group of words that includes at least one main clause. For example:

I analyzed the data.

A simple sentence consists of one main clause only.

I analyzed the data.

A compound sentence consists of two or more main clauses joined with a coordinating conjunction (i.e., *and, but, or*).

I analyzed the data, and the coauthor went on vacation.

A complex sentence consists of one or more main clauses together with one or more subordinate clauses. Each subordinate clause is linked to a main clause with a subordinating conjunction (e.g., *although, when, which, that*).

While I analyzed the data, the coauthor went on vacation.

4.1.2 Sentence Fragments (Problem #1)

A group of words constitutes a sentence fragment (rather than a sentence) when it:

- (a) lacks the basic features of a clause (i.e., lacks a subject and/or a verb);
- (b) contains no main clause; or
- (c) consists of only a subordinate clause that modifies a prior sentence.

The underlined passages in the examples below are sentence fragments.

(1) If all of the cutbacks are implemented, in 1998 the basic monthly allowance for students will be 425 guilders and the supplementary allowance will be 473 guilders. **Together 898 guilders. An amount that will have to be supplemented through work or loans with some three hundred guilders if the student is to have a decent monthly income.**

(2) We ran out of money to pay subjects. **Which is why there are so few subjects per cell.**

(3) We found no main effect for target sex. **Although, Jones (1988) did report such an effect.**

4.1.3 Run-on Sentences (Problem #2)

Run-on sentences are roughly speaking the opposite of sentence fragments. They occur when a group of words punctuated as a sentence actually includes two or more complete sentences. Below is an example (in Dutch) of a run-on sentence structure.

(4) **SPSS heeft een aantal systeem variabelen en een aantal systeem functies, deze staan in Appendix A en B van de handleiding.**

Sentence structure problems (especially fragments) often arise when subordinating conjunctions are used to connect clauses contained in separate sentences (as in Example 3 above). This may happen because subordinating conjunctions are not recognized as such. Note that there are at least two ways to correct Example 3. First, the two clauses could be connected with the subordinating conjunction *although* to form a single sentence.

We found no main effect for target sex, although Jones (1988) did report such an effect.

Secondly, however, the subordinating conjunction could be replaced with an expression which is suitable for connecting separate sentences.

We found no main effect for target sex. However, Jones (1988) did report such an effect.

4.1E Exercise on Sentence Structure

Form one or more correctly structured sentences from Examples 1, 2, and 4 on the previous page. The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

4.2 Misplaced/Dangling Modifiers

The APA manual's discussion of misplaced and dangling modifiers is cursory and sometimes difficult to understand. The below remarks are meant to help further elucidate this grammatical issue. References are made to page numbers and examples in section 2.09 of the 5th edition. Read this section of the APA manual before reading the below commentary.

The 'modifiers' in question in the example sentences on pages 52-53 in the APA manual are underlined below:

- (1) After separating the participants into groups, Group A was tested.
- (2) The participants were tested using this procedure.
- (3) To test this hypothesis, the participants were divided into two groups.
- (4) Congruent with other studies, Mulholland and Williams (2000) found that this group performed better.

The first three of the above modifiers are adverbial; the fourth is adjectival.

Adverbial modifiers

Adverbial modifiers provide additional information about the main action described in a main clause. Adverbial modifiers that are in danger of being left "dangling" have the following two characteristics:

- (a) They contain a verb in the form of either an infinitive (*to* + the base form of a verb, e.g., *to test*, *to find*) or a present participle (the base form + *ing*, e.g., *testing*, *finding*).
- (b) The verb they contain does not have an explicit subject within the adverbial modifier. (In examples 1-3 above, for example, one sees the verbs *separating*, *using*, and *to test*, yet the sentences fail to explicitly identify who is doing the separating, using and testing.

The problems associated with adverbial modifiers of the above-described type arise because of the absent but implicit subject of the verb forms they contain. The rule in English is that the implicit subject of an adverbial modifier of above-described type must be the subject of the main clause that is modified. Consider the below examples:

Wrong: ****To ensure confidentiality, the subjects were interviewed individually.****

(The problem is that the subject of the main clause ['the subjects'] is not the implicit subject of the verb *to ensure*.)

Right: **To ensure confidentiality, we interviewed the subjects individually. We interviewed the subjects individually to ensure confidentiality. The subjects were interviewed individually so that confidentiality would be ensured.**

(In the last sentence the adverbial modifier takes the form of a clause with its own subject; therefore the modifier is not dangling.)

Note that a few widely used expressions form exceptions to the general rule prohibiting dangling adverbial modifiers:

Generally speaking, this is true.
Considering everything, it was a solid performance.
According to Walters, this is true.

In such cases, one need not be explicit about who or what is doing the speaking, considering, or according.

Adjectival modifiers

Adjectival modifiers provide additional information about a noun contained in a main clause. (This noun need not be the subject of the main clause.) The adjectival modifiers that cause the most problems are those that begin with (or consist only of) an adjective (e.g., congruent *with these findings*) or a past participle (e.g., intrigued *by these results*).

There are two mistakes that can be made with adjectival modifiers: They can be either misplaced or dangling. Misplaced adjectival modifiers are not positioned next to the noun they modify (and thus can be understood as modifying some other noun). Dangling adjectival modifiers are those that modify a noun that is not contained anywhere in the sentence.

Wrong (Misplaced): *We designed a new study, intrigued by these findings.*

Wrong (Dangling): *Intrigued by these findings, a new study was designed.*

Right: *Intrigued by these findings, we designed a new study.*

Or, if you want to avoid the first person:

*A new study was designed to address the questions raised
by these findings.*

For further discussion and illustration of dangling modifiers, the reader can consult pages 146-148 in *The Student's Writing Guide* by G. Taylor.

4.3 Parallel Construction

(A) The importance of using parallel forms with *either . . . or* and *neither . . . nor* is stressed on pages 59-60 of the APA manual. In this context, remember that *nor* is only used following *neither*, and not in other negative constructions.

They found the speech neither funny nor informative.

But: They did not find the speech either funny or informative.

(B) For further discussion and illustration of the issue of parallel construction, the reader can consult pages 206-209 in *The Student's Writing Guide* by G. Taylor, as well as Bem (1991).

4.4 Passive Constructions

APA Guidelines on Use of the Passive Voice

According to the APA Manual, the passive voice should be avoided but is acceptable in some circumstances.

Prefer the active voice The passive voice is acceptable in expository writing and when you want to focus on the object or the recipient of the action rather than on the actor. For example, “The speakers were attached to either side of the chair” emphasizes the placement of speakers, not who placed them – the more appropriate focus in the Method section. (APA, 2001, pp. 41-42)

Pitfalls in the Use of the Passive Voice

So according to the APA, you yourself must be the judge of whether a passive construction is appropriate in a given context. However, this is not where the potential problems stop. From a grammatical point of view, there are two ways in which passive constructions can go wrong.

Problem 1: Is Your Translation from Dutch Correct?

Consider the below overview of passive constructions in the most frequently used tenses.

Tense	Dutch	English
Present	Het wordt beweerd.	It is argued.
Past	Het werd beweerd.	It was argued.
Present Perfect	Het is beweerd.	It has been argued.
Past Perfect	Het was beweerd.	It had been argued.
Future	Het zal worden beweerd.	It will be argued.

The pitfall here is simply explained: Be careful not to write *it is argued* when you mean *het is beweerd*. This simple mistake is very easily made.

Problem 2: Is the Identity of the Implicit Subject of Your Passive Sentence Clear?

Sometimes the identity of the implicit subject of a passive sentence in a scholarly text is obvious or unimportant (as in descriptions of design or experimental procedures, e.g., *The subjects were randomly assigned to one of three conditions*). Often, however, the identity of the implicit subject of a passive sentence is quite important; this may be the case, for example, in theoretical discussions, in literature reviews, and in the presentation of one's own assumptions, theoretical framework, findings, or conclusions. In such contexts one must be very careful to ensure that the implicit subject of a passive sentence is clear to the reader. Constructions such as *It is argued that . . .* can be confusing or even misleading if the writer does not place them carefully in a context in which the identity of the implicit subject (in the above examples: the person arguing or assuming) is absolutely clear. Be especially careful when discussing your own assumptions, theoretical framework, findings, and so forth, in relation to those of other authors. When the sentences surrounding a passive sentence do not make the identity of the implicit subject sufficiently clear, established constructions can help clarify the implicit subject. If the implicit subject is "most researchers" the following constructions can be used:

It is *generally* assumed that. . . .
It is *widely* assumed that. . . .
It is *frequently/often* assumed that. . . .
Many researchers assume that. . . .

If the implicit subject is the author or authors of the text, one might write the following:

In the present study it is assumed that. . . .
We assumed that. . . .
In this study it is assumed that. . . .
Here it is assumed that. . . .

The last two possibilities should be used with care, since they can also refer to another study or another author who has just been mentioned.

For further discussion and illustration of the issue of the passive voice, the reader can consult pages 148-149 in *The Student's Writing Guide* by G. Taylor.

4.5 Word Order

This section discusses a number of sources and types of word order mistakes made by Dutch speakers.

4.5.1 Inversion

Inversion means putting the verb before the subject of a clause. While inversion is quite frequent in Dutch, it is reserved primarily for questions in English. Note the following points about the use of inversion in English.

No inversion in indirect questions

Inversion is not used in indirect questions.

correct: I wondered how clear the explanation was.
incorrect: **I wondered how clear was the explanation.**

Inversion following negative and restrictive adverbial expressions

Although inversion is generally reserved for questions in English, there is one context where clauses that do not pose questions nevertheless show inversion. Inversion is necessary namely in clauses that begin with a "negative or restrictive adverb or adverbial phrase or clause." When writing in English, one must be able to recognize these types of adverbs and adverbial phrases and clauses and use inversion when they occur at the beginning of a clause. In each of the below sentences, the "negative or restrictive adverb or adverbial phrase" is underlined. The inverted subject and verb are italicized.

In no circumstances *can such behavior* be permitted.

[Not: **In no circumstances *such behavior can* be permitted.**]

Never before *had such an effect* been documented.

We were not enthusiastic about reentering all the data. Nor [or Neither] *were we* pleased to find out that 10% of it had been discarded.

Not until we had entered all of the data *did we* realize our mistake.

Not only *did Rogers* fail to assign his subjects randomly, but he also neglected to include a control condition in his design.

Nowhere in the literature *has such an effect* been reported.

On no account *should these results* be considered conclusive.

On no condition *would he* accept their proposal.

Only after three months *did the effect* take hold.

Only after transformation *was this variable* normally distributed.

Only rarely *did subjects* fail to perform the task correctly.

Only then *did we* realize the mistake we had made.

Scarcely / Hardly / No sooner *had we* entered all the data when we realized our mistake.

Seldom [or Rarely] *has such ingenuity* been demonstrated in this field.

If you are not certain whether a given adverbial expression calls for inversion, the simplest solution is not to put the expression at the beginning of the sentence. If the expression isn't at the beginning of the sentence, there will be no inversion, regardless of whether or not it is negative or restrictive. The last of the example sentences just given could thus be rewritten as follows (without inversion):

Such ingenuity has seldom been demonstrated in this field.

4.5.2 Word Order of Parenthetical Information and Enumerations

Parenthetical information and enumerations introduced with a colon should directly follow the sentence elements with which they are associated. That is, 2b and 2d below are preferable to 2a and 2c.

(2a*)**The pupils found it difficult to solve these problems (not to mention their teachers).**

(2b)The pupils (not to mention their teachers) found it difficult to solve these problems.

(2c*)**Three hypotheses were investigated in this study: H1, H2, and H3.**

(2d)In this study we investigated three hypotheses: H1, H2, and H3.

If it is awkward to place the words that reflect what is to be enumerated at the end of the clause, these words can be placed elsewhere in the sentence and tagged with the word *following*. For example:

(2e)The following three hypotheses were investigated in this study: H1, H2, and H3.

Sentences like 2f (below) appear to be standard in Dutch. However, such word order is confusing to English speakers. It is better to use the word order shown in 2g or 2h.

(2f*)**Each subject was presented with one "red" (typically Republican) and one "blue" proposal (typically Democratic).**

(2g)Each subject was presented with one "red" (typically Republican) and one "blue" (typically Democratic) proposal.

(2h)Each subject was presented with one "red" (typically Republican) proposal and one "blue" (typically Democratic) proposal.

4.5.3 Fronting

A direct object or an indirect object can be placed at the beginning of a clause. This is referred to as *fronting*. Although this structure may be common in Dutch, it is often awkward in English, especially written English. Fronting is sometimes used in English to ensure continuity with a previous sentence. For example:

A number of subjects expressed suspicion about the underlying purpose of the experiment. To these subjects we gave the explanation....

Below are some examples of fronting that do not quite work in English.

- Poor ****To the horror index an inverse transformation was applied.****
 Better An inverse transformation was applied to the horror index.
 Poor ****Between the two approaches there are a number of similarities.****
 Better There are a number of similarities between the two approaches.

4.5.4 Words, Phrases, and Clauses that Belong Together

Try not to let the verb of a main clause separate phrases and clauses from the nouns they modify. The last two examples in the previous section illustrate one aspect of this problem. In each case, a prepositional phrase (*to the horror index & between the two approaches*) and the word it modifies (respectively *applied & similarities*) are separated by the verb of the clause. Other examples of this problem are illustrated below.

- Poor ****Data are presented on hospital admissions due to attempted suicide.****
 Better Data on hospital admissions due to attempted suicide are presented.
 We present data on hospital admissions due to attempted suicide.
 This paper presents data on hospital admissions due to attempted suicide.
 Poor ****Data are presented that support Hall's theory.****
 Better Data that support Hall's theory are presented.
 We present data that support Hall's theory.
 This article presents data that support Hall's theory.

A related point is that phrases that together with particular verbs constitute idiomatic expressions should be kept together. These expressions can often be recognized by the fact that they contain a preposition that cannot be understood literally. Thus the below sentences contain idiomatic expressions because *in* is not meant literally in the sense of "in" a certain place or time period.

The students participated in learning exercises.
 There was a decrease in the number of bus passengers.

Such idiomatic expressions can best be left intact. For example:

- Poor ****The students participated in Room 211 in learning exercises.****
 Better The students participated in learning exercises in Room 211.
 Poor** ****There was a decrease in 1991 in the number of bus passengers.****
 Better There was a decrease in the number of bus passengers in 1991.

Single adverbs (e.g., *eagerly*) inserted within idiomatic expressions are not a problem.

The students participated *eagerly* in the learning exercises.

4.5.5 Word Order When Combining Different Realms of Discourse

Be careful about word order in sentences that combine different "realms" or "levels" of discourse. For example, when reporting what another scholar has written, one can very easily make blunders.

- Poor (5a*)**When attempting to solve this addition problem, Riley states that the child usually becomes frustrated.** (The problem is that this sentence means that it was Riley who attempted to solve the problem.)
- Better (5b)Riley states that the child usually becomes frustrated when attempting to solve this problem.
- Better (5c)When attempting to solve this problem, Riley states, the child usually becomes frustrated.

Note that if a reference to the source of a statement (*Riley states* in the above example) occurs in the middle of your account of what was actually stated, the reference should be set off with two commas (as in 5c).

4.5.6 Splitting Verb Infinitives

Avoid splitting verb infinitives. That is, do not put an adverb between *to* and a verb when the latter together form an infinitive. Some people consider this rule important, while others view it as unnecessary and outdated.

- (6a)It is important to monitor the outcome closely. [not *to closely monitor*]
- (6b)Subjects were encouraged to answer these questions honestly. [not *to honestly answer*]

In 6c (below) an attempt to avoid splitting an infinitive has led to ambiguity; it is not clear which verb *frequently* modifies (*forget* or *signifies*?); in such a situation one might elect to split an infinitive (as has been done in 6d) for the sake of clarity.

- (6c)To forget people's names frequently signifies a lack of courtesy.
- (6d)To frequently forget people's names signifies a lack of courtesy.

Another context in which one might split infinitives is illustrated below.

- (6e)It is important to monitor subjects' blood pressure, heart rate, and respiration closely.
- (6f)It is important to closely monitor subjects' blood pressure, heart rate, and respiration.

In the case of 6e, it could be argued that the adverb *closely* is too far from the verb it modifies, *monitor*, and thus that the infinitive should be split (as in 6f) as a way of getting the two words together.

4.5.7 Word Order with Only, Also, Especially, Particularly

Only should precede the word to which it refers:

- (a) He lent me only ten dollars. (Not 100 dollars)
- (b) He only lent me ten dollars. (He didn't give it to me!)
- (c) He lends money only to me. (Thus not to anyone else)
- (d) Only he lends me money. (No one else lends me money).

Note that the above does not apply to *also*. To replace *only* in the above sentences with *also*, the following changes have to be made:

- (a) He lent me ten dollars, too. OR: He also lent me ten dollars.
- (b) He also lent me ten dollars.
- (c) He lends money to me, too. OR: He also lends me money.
- (d) He, too, lends me money. OR: He also lends me money.

Do not begin a sentence with the word *also*, *especially*, or *particularly* followed immediately (i.e., with no intervening comma) by the subject of the sentence.

- Poor** ****Also the 10-year-olds performed poorly.****
- Better** The 10-year-olds also performed poorly.
- Poor** ****Especially the 10-year-olds performed poorly.****
- Better** The 10-year-olds were especially likely to perform poorly.
- Better** The 10-year-olds performed most poorly.
- Better** The performance of the 10-year-olds was especially poor.

Also, set off by a comma, can be used at the beginning of the sentence if *also* refers to the whole sentence.

There were several reasons for this experimenter effect. First, one of the experimenters was poorly trained. Also, this experimenter was a nonnative speaker of English.

Note these other ways of using *especially* and *particularly*:

The deterioration of attention span was considerable, *especially/particularly* among boys.
Boys, *especially/particularly* those under five, showed great interest in the stimulus materials.

4.5.8 Word Order and Adjectives

An adjective that precedes a noun can itself be preceded by modifiers in the form of other adjectives, simple (single-word) adverbs, and/or articles. Thus the following sentence is correct:

- (8a)The experiment was carried out according to *a carefully made plan*.

Modifying phrases cannot precede an adjective, however. Thus the Dutch word order in 8b is not acceptable in English. A correct translation of 8b is given in 8c:

(8b) *De door de politie opgeworpen barricaden werden afgebroken.*

(8c) *The barricades put up by the police were knocked down.*

4.5.9 Word Order and Adverbs

There are three possible positions for single-word adverbs:

- 1) "initial position"
- 2) "middle position"
- 3) "end position"

Some adverbs may occupy any of these three positions. Other adverbs can only occur in one or two of the three possible positions.

Adverbial phrases can normally occupy only the initial and end positions.

Below is a description of the three positions for adverbs, followed by a discussion of regularities in the placement of some types of adverbs.

4.5.9.1 The Three Locations for Adverbs

(1) INITIAL POSITION FOR THE ADVERB

"Initial position" for an adverb means before the sentence subject. Placing an adverb or adverbial phrase in the initial position serves to put emphasis on that adverb. The following types of adverbs can be used in the initial position:

(a) Adverbs of definite time:

Yesterday we finished entering the data.

In June the days are very long.

(b) Some adverbs of indefinite frequency:

Sometimes it is advisable not to say what you think.

Most other types of adverbs usually occupy either the middle or the end positions.

(2) MIDDLE POSITION FOR THE ADVERB

The precise meaning of "middle position" for an adverb depends on the characteristics of the verb which is modified by the adverb.

(a) When a verb consists of only one word that is a form of the verb *to be*, middle position means after the verb:

He is *usually* late.

Not can be placed either before or after the adverb in a sentence constructed as the one above:

He is **not** usually late.

He is usually **not** late.

Note, however, that the two sentences above have slightly different meanings.

(b) When a verb consists of only one word that is not a form of the verb *to be*, middle position means before the verb:

He *always* says what he means.

(c) When a verb consists of more than one word, the most common middle position is after the first auxiliary verb:

The profits have *always* been shared.

Not in a sentence like the one above is usually placed before the adverb.

The profits have **not** always been shared.

In the last two examples the adverb modifies the entire verb compound. Sometimes, however, middle position for an adverb (especially an adverb of manner) should precede the final element of a multi-word verb:

The profits have been *equally* divided.

(d) Finally, always remember that you must avoid putting adverbs between a verb and its direct object, as illustrated below.

Poor ****The physician monitored closely the patient's blood pressure.****

Better The physician closely monitored the patient's blood pressure.

Better The physician monitored the patient's blood pressure closely.

Types of adverbs that can occupy the middle position

- adverbs of manner (e.g., willingly, secretly, reluctantly)
- adverbs of indefinite time (e.g., currently, recently)
- adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g., usually, sometimes)
- not adverbial *phrases*

(3) END POSITION FOR THE ADVERB

"End position" for an adverb means following a clause's subject, verb, direct object, indirect object, and so forth.

The types of adverbs that can occupy the end position

- adverbs of manner (e.g., willingly, secretly, reluctantly)
- adverbs of evaluation (e.g., poorly, well)
- adverbs of place (e.g., there)
- adverbs of definite time (e.g., yesterday)

- adverbs of definite frequency (e.g., twice)
- adverbial phrases (e.g., in 1991)

The order of multiple adverbs in the end position

It is possible for a number of different adverbs to occupy the end position simultaneously. In this context, adverbs of manner are usually placed first, followed by adverbs of place, followed by adverbs of time:

The trains ran on schedule throughout the Netherlands this morning.

This order departs from the tendency in Dutch to put time adverbs before place adverbs. With verbs of movement, however, adverbs of place (or direction) should be placed first, followed by adverbs of manner and adverbs of time:

The train arrived in Amsterdam on time this morning.

4.5.9.2 Remarks on Word Order with Particular Types of Adverbs

(1) Adverbs of Manner

Adverbs of manner indicate how a certain action was performed; they usually end in *-ly*. Adverbs of manner can be placed in either the middle or the end position. In a clause with a long direct object, it is advisable to put an adverb of manner in the middle position. For example:

They volunteered *willingly*.

They *willingly* volunteered to help the unemployed immigrants find work.

In clauses with more than one verb, different meanings can result from placing an adverb of manner in the middle as compared with the end position.

They *secretly* decided to run away from home.

They decided to run away from home *secretly*.

The meaning of an adverb of manner that involves personal qualities of persons (e.g., foolishly, generously) differs depending on whether it occupies the middle or the end position. Such adverbs in the middle position suggest dispositional attributions (e.g., that it was foolish or generous to have acted in such a way:

He *foolishly* answered all of the questions.

He *generously* gave every employee a raise.

The same adverbs in the end position only modify the verb and do not necessarily suggest dispositional attributions:

He answered all of the questions *foolishly*.

He paid every employee *generously*.

(2) Adverbs of evaluation

Adverbs that evaluate or indicate how well or badly something was done typically belong in the end position of a clause in which the verb is active; in passive structures, however, evaluative adverbs can precede past participles:

The lawyer argued the case well.
The case was well argued.

4.5.10 Some Incidental Dutch-English Differences in Word Order

Het was *eerder* een *idee* dan een theorie.
It was an idea *rather than* a theory.

De gemiddelde scores van de vrouwen en de mannen waren *12 resp. 10*.
The average scores for the women and the men were *12 and 10, respectively*.
The average scores for the women and the men were *respectively 12 and 10*.

4.5E Exercise on Word Order

Place the word or words in parentheses in a correct position in the sentence. Choose more than one position if this is possible. The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

1. (*even*) He was not aware of the news.
2. (*almost*) He swam two hundred yards.
3. (*quickly*) Reptiles are too big to adapt themselves to new conditions.
4. (*often*) To lose one's temper signifies a lack of self-control.
5. (*always*) They have been interested in physics.
6. (*in all stages of growth*) The tomato plant is very susceptible to serious injury from a number of diseases.
7. (*metaphorically*) According to this model human memory should be represented as an associative network.
8. (*selectively*) Affect is assumed to activate mood-congruent concepts in memory.
9. (*always, directly*) Positive mood does not lead to more efficient information processing.
10. (*automatically*) Affective reactions are regulated by means of internalized social norms.
11. (*consciously*) Effects of mood may be controlled.
12. (*exactly*) The model is insufficiently specific about how these factors influence memory.

Improve the word order of the following sentences, where needed.

13. Ten subjects participated at the workplace in the sessions.
14. In very early times it is probable that a baited line was used without a hook.
15. In the liquid state we think these molecules have a good deal of freedom.
16. During the early part of the 20th century it is said that 40,000 artists were at work in Paris.
17. The planned for next week meeting has been postponed.
18. Between both approaches are striking correspondences.

19. A questionnaire was used to measure defense mechanisms: the XYZ , which was developed by Peters et al. (1988).
20. Data are presented on admissions due to attempted suicide to general hospitals.
21. Especially reality perception and affective involvement accounted for most of the variance in fear of crime.
22. On the data a factor analysis was performed.
23. Soon after, various European enterprises and governments became also interested in these programs.
24. The American approach may not only be socially unacceptable but also inefficient.
25. Changes at the organizational and environmental level will not only require measures to support behavioral changes, but also the identification and elimination of risks and obstacles in the learning environment.
26. Interventions at this level have also important political implications.

Part 5

Other Issues in English Usage

5.1 Abbreviations

Abbreviations used in Dutch, even those that derive from Latin (or appear to derive from English), are not always used in English. Below are summaries of: (a) abbreviations commonly used in English and (b) important (and perhaps unexpected) differences in the abbreviations used in Dutch and English.

2.1.1 Abbreviations Which Are Commonly Used in English

Abbreviation	Meaning
cf.	<i>Strictly speaking, this abbreviation should be used to mean compare, as when you want to point out a contrasting finding or perspective in a reference citation: (cf. Chang, 1983). In practice, however, this abbreviation as it is often used in scholarly references simply means see.</i>
e.g.	for example
i.e.	that is
#	number (<i>primarily in informal texts</i>)
no.	number
sic	<i>intentionally so written; used to indicate that a preceding word or passage exactly reproduces an original, usually when the original contains a mistake or something the reader might interpret as a mistake.</i>
viz.	namely
vs.	versus
v.	versus (<i>in legal texts</i>)
w/	with (<i>primarily in informal texts</i>)

2.1.2 Abbreviations That Are Impossible or Uncommon in English

Abbreviation	English Equivalent
c.q.	or, and/or, if any, as the case may be, where appropriate
e.a.	et al.
f.e.	for example, e.g.
f.i.	for instance, e.g.
N.B.	<i>N.B. and Nota Bene <u>can</u> be used in English. However these expressions are less common in English than they are in Dutch. They may not always be understood, especially by American readers.</i>
nr.	no., #
o.a.	among others (<i>when the "others" are persons</i>); among other things (<i>when the "others" are things</i>)
resp.	respectively

5.2 British and American English

American English and British English differ in so many ways that "bi-lingual" dictionaries (e.g., Moss, 1991) have been compiled to aid "translation" between the two languages. This is not to mention the many other varieties of English spoken throughout the world, which also have their own idiosyncracies. Fortunately, however, most of the differences between American English and British English are in the domain of everyday and spoken language. American English and British English also differ in scholarly texts, but here the differences are largely stylistic. Regardless of whether your written English looks like American English or British English (or some combination of the two), your text ought to be equally well understood on both sides of the Atlantic. Nevertheless, it is advisable to learn the differences between American and British English and to make a conscious effort to use one or the other (rather than a combination of the two). To begin with, this will give your writing a more polished look. Some journals may require that you use one or the other form of English. For example, journals which follow the stylistic guidelines set forth in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (APA, 1994) may prefer or require that texts submitted for publication use American English only. (The APA manual states that authors should refer to an American dictionary -- viz. the most recent version of *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* -- as the authoritative source on spelling, abbreviation, and hyphenation.)

This section outlines some of the more important differences between British and American English. Section 5.2.1 summarizes spelling differences. Sections 5.2.2 and 5.2.3 cover differences in usage and verb tense, respectively.

5.2.1 British-American Differences in Spelling

On the next page you will find a summary of differences between American and British spellings. When two spellings for the same word are used within a given country, both are listed, beginning with the preferred spelling. Spellings that diverge from a given pattern are marked with an asterisk (*).

The sources used to compile this list include *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary* (for American spellings) and the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (for British spellings). Some of the spellings listed here may diverge from what is recommended by your word processor's spell-check. Note that a good dictionary is a better spelling guide than a computer spell-check. Also, be aware that digital spell-checks accept more than one spelling for many words, so it is important to pay attention to consistency as well as correctness in spelling.

British-American Differences in Spelling

Spellings that diverge from a given pattern are marked with an asterisk (*).

AMERICAN

-er

center
theater

-or

behavior
color
favor, favorable, favorite
honor, honorary
humor, humorless, humorous
labor, laborious
rumor

-og

analog
catalog
demagogue* *or* demagog
dialogue* *or* dialog
epilogue* *or* epilog
monologue* *or* monolog
prologue* *or* prolog

-ce

practice (noun)
practice (verb)
pretense *or* pretence

-z-

analyze
realize
criticize
modernization

-l-, etc.

counsel, counseled, counseling
label, labeled, labeling
model, modeled, modeling
worship, worshiped, worshipping

miscellaneous

artifact
check (as in a bank check)
defense, offense
enrollment
fulfill, fulfillment
installment
jewelry
percent
plow
pajamas
program
tire

BRITISH

-re

centre
theatre

-our

behaviour
colour
favour, favourable, favourite
honour, honorary*
humour, humourless, humorous*
labour, laborious*
rumour

-ogue

analogue
catalogue
demagogue
dialogue
epilogue
monologue
prologue

-se

practice (noun)
practise (verb)
pretence

-s-

analyse
realize* *or* realise
criticize* *or* criticise
modernization* *or* modernization

-ll-, etc.

counsel, counselled, counselling
label, labelled, labelling
model, modelled, modelling
worship, worshipped, worshipping

miscellaneous

artefact
cheque
defence, offence
enrolment
fulfil, fulfilment
instalment
jewellery
per cent
plough
pyjamas
programme (but *computer program*)
tyre

5.2.2 British-American Differences in Usage

(1) Fewer commas are used in British English (i.e., the British tend to leave out optional commas). The “serial comma” is usually not used in British English (see section 3.3.C.4).

(2) In certain verbal constructions the subjunctive is used in American English, whereas constructions with the "putative should" are used in British English (see section 2.5.3.)

(3) Sometimes different words or word combinations are used in American and British English. Some examples are given below.

(4) See also Sternberg (1993, p. 221) for an overview of general style differences between American and British psychology journals.

DUTCH	AMERICAN	BRITISH
basisschool	elementary or primary school	primary school
begane grond	first or ground floor	ground floor
blik	can	tin
boos	<u>mad</u> , angry	angry
gek	crazy	<u>mad</u> , crazy
gemeen	<u>mean</u> , nasty, vicious	nasty, vicious
gierig	stingy	<u>mean</u> , stingy
attitude tot	attitude towards	attitude <u>to</u>
kinderwagen	baby carriage	pram
luier	diaper	nappy
post	mail	post
wetenschappelijke staf	faculty (members)	staff
wiskunde	math (mathematics)	maths (mathematics)
vakantie, holiday	vacation	holiday
BUT: feestdag	holiday	holiday
	admitted <u>to the hospital</u>	admitted <u>to hospital</u>
miljoen (1,000,000)	million	million
miljard (1,000,000,000)	billion	milliard
biljoen (1,000,000,000,000)	trillion	billion

5.2.3 British-American Differences in Verb Tense

(1) The verbs *fit*, *quit*, and *wet* are regular in British English (past and past perfect are: *fitted*, *quitted*, and *wetted*) but irregular in American English (past and past perfect are: *fit*, *quit*, *wet*).

Am. English: Analysis revealed that the data fit the model reasonably well.

Brit. English: Analysis revealed that the data fitted the model reasonably well.

(2) In British English the verbs *burn*, *dream*, *lean*, *learn*, *smell*, *spell*, *spill*, and *spoil* can be either regular (i.e., with past and past perfect formed by adding *-ed*) or irregular (with past and past perfect tenses as follows: *burnt*, *dreamt*, *leant*, *learnt*, *smelt*, *spelt*, *spilt*, and *spoilt*). In American English only the regular forms of these verbs are used.

5.3 Spelling

In the present age of computers and computer spell-check programs, spelling has become less of an issue for students of English. Nevertheless, it is advisable to pay some attention to correct spelling. This section consists of two parts: (1) spelling mistakes that a computer spell-check will miss and (2) a spelling exercise. See the previous section for British-American differences in spelling.

5.3.1 Mistakes a Computer Spell-Check Will Miss

advice vs. advise

Advice (*advies* in Dutch) is a noun (also remember that this noun is uncountable in English -- i.e., you may speak of "a piece of advice" but not of "an advice"), whereas *advise* (*advies geven* in Dutch) is a verb. A number of other noun-verb pairs follow this pattern, for example *device/devise* and *prophecy/prophesy*.

affect vs. effect

Both words can be used as either noun or verb:

affect (noun) = the subjective aspect of an emotion;
effect (noun) = result;
affect (verb) = to produce an effect upon [e.g., X affected Y];
effect (verb) = to bring about [e.g., X effected a change in Y].

choose/chose, lose/lost, loose

- *Choose* and *chose* are respectively the infinitive and past tense of the Dutch verb *kiezen*.
- *Lose* and *lost* are similarly the infinitive and past tense of *verliezen*.
- *Choose* rhymes with *lose* (i.e., the vowels in the two words are pronounced in the same way), despite the different spellings.
- *Loose* is an adjective meaning *los* in Dutch; *loose* sounds like *lose*, except that *loose* is pronounced more quickly.

cite vs. site

cite = *citeren*
site = *plaats*

complement vs. compliment

The meanings of these two words in English are the same as their meanings in Dutch. Beware of reversing the two.

council vs. counsel

council (noun) = a group of people who give advice or govern
counsel (noun) = advice; an advisor or consultant
counsel (verb) = to advise or consult

extend vs. extent

extend (verb) = *uitbreiden* in Dutch
extent (noun) = *omvang, mate* in Dutch

farther vs. further

Use *farther* for actual spatial distances and *further* otherwise (e.g., quantity, time).

fortuitous vs. fortunate

fortuitous means "occurring by chance." It can also (but does not necessarily) mean *fortunate* (i.e., "lucky").

healthful vs. healthy

If one wants to be precise, *healthful* should be used to signify that something promotes health, whereas *healthy* should be used to denote "in a state of health." Thus one speaks of "healthful activities" and "healthy people."

homogeneous vs. homogenous

Homogeneous means "of the same or a similar nature or kind" or "of uniform structure or composition throughout." *Homogenous* means "of, relating to, or exhibiting physical correspondence due to descent from the same ancestral type," but is also sometimes used (erroneously in the view of some) to mean "homogeneous."

its vs. it's

its = the nongendered third-person singular possessive pronoun
it's = it + is (Avoid contractions [e.g., *it's*, *can't*] in formal writing.)
For example:

The cat ate its food.
It's time to go downtown.

lie vs. lay

In Dutch these two words can be translated as respectively *liggen* or *liegen* and *leggen*. The problem in English is that the past and perfect tenses of these two irregular verbs are very often confused. Thus be sure to use the correct forms of these verbs:

Infinitive:	to lie (liggen)	to lie (liegen)	to lay (leggen)
Past tense:	lay	lied	laid
Past participle:	lain	lied	laid

principal vs. principle

Principal can function either as a noun (meaning "person who has controlling authority") or as an adjective (meaning "most important, consequential, or influential"). *Principle* functions only as a noun (meaning "a fundamental law, doctrine, or assumption").

spacing

Some compound words are often mistakenly written as more than one word. The correct forms for a number of these words are listed below. In some cases, the words that make up the compound word can also be written as separate words, but when written separately the meaning of the words differs from that of the compound word.

alongside

another

insofar as (= *voor zover*)

instead

meantime ("in the meantime" [= *ondertussen*] vs. "the mean time was 10 s")

notwithstanding (= *niettegenstaande, ondanks*)

onto ("jump onto the table" vs. "move on to the next question")

so-called

sometime ("stop by sometime" vs. "some time ago")

stationary vs. stationery

stationary = *vast, stilstand*

stationery = *postpapier, schrijfbehoeften*

their, there, they're

There is not much confusion in the minds of most advanced students of English about the respective meanings of these three words (*their* = *hun*; *there* = *daar*; *they're* = *they are* = *zij zijn*). Nevertheless, once mistyped they often remain uncorrected. So be careful.

to vs. too

The distinction between these two words is also probably not difficult for the advanced student of English. Nevertheless, they do get mistyped from time to time, a tendency which may be encouraged by the fact that both of the words can be translated as *te* in Dutch (e.g., "Zij hoeven niet te betalen" = "They do not need to pay"; "Er is te veel armoede in de wereld" = "There is too much poverty in the world.")

5.3E A Spelling Test

Test your knowledge with this (difficult!) spelling test. For each word pair, choose the correctly spelled word. The answer key can be found in Part 6 of this reader.

A Spelling Test, by Mindy McAdams

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<http://www.sentex.net/~mmcadams/spelling.html>

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If you want to reproduce the spelling test in printed form, please provide the URL of this page."

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> annoint | <input type="checkbox"/> anoint |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> coolly | <input type="checkbox"/> cooly |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> supersede | <input type="checkbox"/> supercede |
| 4. <input type="checkbox"/> irresistible | <input type="checkbox"/> irresistable |
| 5. <input type="checkbox"/> developement | <input type="checkbox"/> development |
| 6. <input type="checkbox"/> alright | <input type="checkbox"/> all right |
| 7. <input type="checkbox"/> seperate | <input type="checkbox"/> separate |
| 8. <input type="checkbox"/> tyranny | <input type="checkbox"/> tyrrany |
| 9. <input type="checkbox"/> harrass | <input type="checkbox"/> harass |
| 10. <input type="checkbox"/> desiccate | <input type="checkbox"/> dessicate |
| 11. <input type="checkbox"/> indispensable | <input type="checkbox"/> indispensible |
| 12. <input type="checkbox"/> recieve | <input type="checkbox"/> receive |
| 13. <input type="checkbox"/> pursue | <input type="checkbox"/> persue |
| 14. <input type="checkbox"/> reccomend | <input type="checkbox"/> recommend |
| 15. <input type="checkbox"/> desperate | <input type="checkbox"/> desparate |
| 16. <input type="checkbox"/> liquify | <input type="checkbox"/> liquefy |
| 17. <input type="checkbox"/> seize | <input type="checkbox"/> sieze |
| 18. <input type="checkbox"/> cemetary | <input type="checkbox"/> cemetery |
| 19. <input type="checkbox"/> subpoena | <input type="checkbox"/> subpena |
| 20. <input type="checkbox"/> definatly | <input type="checkbox"/> definitely |
| 21. <input type="checkbox"/> ocassion | <input type="checkbox"/> occasion |
| 22. <input type="checkbox"/> consensus | <input type="checkbox"/> concensus |
| 23. <input type="checkbox"/> inadvertant | <input type="checkbox"/> inadvertent |

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 24. <input type="checkbox"/> minuscule | <input type="checkbox"/> miniscule |
| 25. <input type="checkbox"/> judgment | <input type="checkbox"/> judgement |
| 26. <input type="checkbox"/> inoculate | <input type="checkbox"/> innoculate |
| 27. <input type="checkbox"/> drunkenness | <input type="checkbox"/> drunkeness |
| 28. <input type="checkbox"/> occurence | <input type="checkbox"/> occurrence |
| 29. <input type="checkbox"/> dissipate | <input type="checkbox"/> disippate |
| 30. <input type="checkbox"/> weird | <input type="checkbox"/> wierd |
| 31. <input type="checkbox"/> alot | <input type="checkbox"/> a lot |
| 32. <input type="checkbox"/> accomodate | <input type="checkbox"/> accommodate |
| 33. <input type="checkbox"/> embarrassment | <input type="checkbox"/> embarassment |
| 34. <input type="checkbox"/> ecstasy | <input type="checkbox"/> ecstacy |
| 35. <input type="checkbox"/> repetition | <input type="checkbox"/> repitition |
| 36. <input type="checkbox"/> battalion | <input type="checkbox"/> batallion |
| 37. <input type="checkbox"/> despair | <input type="checkbox"/> dispair |
| 38. <input type="checkbox"/> irritable | <input type="checkbox"/> irritible |
| 39. <input type="checkbox"/> accidently | <input type="checkbox"/> accidentally |
| 40. <input type="checkbox"/> liaison | <input type="checkbox"/> liason |
| 41. <input type="checkbox"/> memento | <input type="checkbox"/> momento |
| 42. <input type="checkbox"/> brocolli | <input type="checkbox"/> broccoli |
| 43. <input type="checkbox"/> millennium | <input type="checkbox"/> millenium |
| 44. <input type="checkbox"/> yeild | <input type="checkbox"/> yield |
| 45. <input type="checkbox"/> existence | <input type="checkbox"/> existance |
| 46. <input type="checkbox"/> independent | <input type="checkbox"/> independant |
| 47. <input type="checkbox"/> sacreligious | <input type="checkbox"/> sacrilegious |
| 48. <input type="checkbox"/> insistent | <input type="checkbox"/> insistant |
| 49. <input type="checkbox"/> excede | <input type="checkbox"/> exceed |
| 50. <input type="checkbox"/> privilege | <input type="checkbox"/> priviledge |

5.4 Subject-Verb Agreement

The below remarks supplement the APA manual's treatment of issues of subject-verb agreement (section 2.07 of the 5th edition).

1)Definitions:

singular = enkelvoud

plural = meervoud

2)Note that the following sentences take a singular verb.

Each patient, together with his or her spouse, was interviewed.

The bad weather, as well as the lack of daylight, was responsible for the poor quality of the videotape.

The house, including furniture and household appliances, was sold for \$24,000.

A singular verb is needed in the above sentences because phrases enclosed in commas do not affect the basic grammatical structure of a sentence. Thus the (singular) subjects of the above sentences are simply *Each patient*, *The bad weather*, and *The house*.

3) Also note the following similarities and differences between Dutch and English.

(a)

Het aantal psychologen in Nederland is aan het stijgen.

Een aantal psychologen is in deze kamer.

The number of psychologists in the Netherlands is growing.

But:

A number of psychologists are in this room.

"The number of" refers to a numeral itself, not the multitude of things represented by the numeral; therefore it takes a singular verb in English. "A number of," on the other hand, refers to the multitude of things referred to by the numeral and therefore takes a plural verb.

(b)

Geen van de informatie is beschikbaar.

Geen van de onderzoekers is aanwezig.

None of the information is available.

But:

None of the researchers are present.

If *none* refers (explicitly or implicitly) to a singular noun (e.g., *information*), use a singular verb; if *none* refers to a plural noun (e.g., *researchers*), use a plural verb. (This is actually a

controversial area of English usage; you will find that some English writers follow the "Dutch" rule.)

(c)

Slechts 12 % van de informatie is juist.

Slechts 12 % van de adressen is juist.

Only 12% of the information is correct.

But:

Only 12% of the addresses are correct.

These sentences are governed by the same general principal of subject-verb agreement as that described above under (b).

(d)

De meerderheid van psychologen is bekend met het werk van Piaget.

But:

The majority of psychologists are familiar with Piaget's work.

Part 6
Answer Keys

Part 6: Answer Keys

Key to Exercise 2.1E: Adjectives & Adverbs

- 1) The subjects were either underrewarded, equitably rewarded, or overrewarded.
- 2) no correction necessary
- 3) no correction necessary
- 4) This phenomenon is **relatively** rare.
- 5) no correction necessary
- 6) The mean in Condition 1 was **significantly** greater than than in Condition 2.
- 7) The beam of light was **exceptionally** strong.
- 8) no correction necessary
- 9) The patients in Treatment 1 recovered at a **significantly** faster rate than those in Treatent 2.

Key to Exercise 2.2E1: General Exercise on the Use of Articles

0 = add no article

- 1) I don't like **0** coffee [in general].
- 2) I don't like **the** coffee they sell here.
- 3) **0** Love will conquer all.
- 4) In **the** case of boys living in a foster home, the pattern of results was the opposite.
- 5) **0** Dutch tulips are renowned.
- 6) **The** tulips he bought were expensive.
- 7) **0** Life is sometimes difficult.
- 8) It doesn't matter what **0** other people think.
- 9) People who break **the** law don't always go to **0** prison.
- 10) They go to **0** school only four days a week [to study].
- 11) He went to **the** school to apply for a job as a teacher.
- 12) They go to **0** church every Thursday evening [to worship].
- 13) They go to **the** church every Thursday evening to attend reading lessons.
- 14) Can you translate this into **0** Dutch for me?
- 15) Every member of **the** Jones family plays **the** violin.
- 16) I have to be at **0** work at 8:00 a.m.
- 17) She read the book from **0** beginning to **0** end in one sitting.
- 18) Everyone with **the** exception of Martin enjoyed the concert.
- 19) The students were expected to learn the names of each European capital by **0** heart.
- 20) Even though the results were very disappointing, no one lost **0** hope.
- 21) He graduated from **0** secondary school at **the** age of 21.
- 22) He went to **0** college at **0** age 21.
- 23) At this time of **0** year it's difficult to recruit new members.
- 24) In **the** name of my supervisor, Mrs. Smith, I would like to congratulate you.
- 25) I heard your speech on **the** radio.
- 26) I saw the interview on **0** television.
- 27) These researchers believe that a cure for AIDS is within **0** reach.
- 28) They performed their duties to **the** satisfaction of everyone.

- 29) When the truth comes to **0** light, people's opinions will change.
- 30) In **0/the** light of these findings we propose. . . .
- 31) People associated with this religion dress only in **0** white.
- 32) More than **0** half of **the** subjects who participated correctly guessed the true purpose of the experiment.
- 33) Do you normally drink coffee with **0** breakfast?
- 34) **The** more education you have, **the** easier it is to find an interesting job.
- 35) He wants to become **a** doctor.
- 36) As **a** child [When she was a child], she lived in America.
- 37) They have a house of their own.
- 38) At that age people want to lead their own lives.
- 39) Most people eat three meals **a** day.
- 40) They have **0** little money.
- 41) She has **a / 0** few friends.
- 42) What **0** beautiful weather.
- 43) In **a** certain sense, these findings are not surprising.
- 44) What **0** interesting research.
- 45) May I give you **a piece of** advice?
- 46) She is not a housewife. She is no housewife. She is a poor housewife.
- 47) He is suffering from both **a** terrible headache, **a** cold, and **the** flu.
- 48) Write **the** answer to each of **the** following questions [each question has only one answer].
- 49) That can be an uncertain way of earning **a** living.
- 50) He was pleased that the specialist took **an** interest in his son's illness.
- 51) Everyone should have **the** right to **a** job.
- 52) Age is just as important **a** characteristic as personality.
- 53) You should always take **0** aspirin with **a** half **0/a** glass of water.
- 54) He was **an** actor, **a** singer, and **a** dancer.
- 55) **The** participants in the debate will include **a** philosopher, **a** businessman, and **a** journalist.
- 56) He is **an** enthusiastic fisherman and **0** hunter
- 57) What kind of **0/a** scientist are you?
- 58) Bring an umbrella in **0** case of rain.
- 59) Is she following **a** theological or **a/0** religious course of study?
- 60) Is that **a** natural island or **a** man-made one?
- 61) **The** disaster was **the/a** result of **0/a** lack of foresight.
- 62) He married **the** cousin of his best friend. (His friend has only one cousin.)
He married **a** cousin of his best friend. (His friend has more than one cousin, or it is not known how many cousins his best friend has.)
- 63) A demonstration by factory workers touched off **the** Revolution of 1920.
- 64) The committee will assess **the** nature and **0** extent of the problem.
- 65) The committee will assess **the** nature of **the** problem and **the** extent of **the** damage.
- 66) Exposure to this chemical in early childhood may result in **0** retarded development.
- 67) **0** high interrater reliability is crucial in content analysis.
- 68) Everyone, with **the** exception of Mary, will come along.

Key to 2.2E2: Exercise on the Use of Articles in a Research Report

0 = no article; where two answers are given, either is possible.

How do 0 attempts to regulate one's own behavior affect **the** inferences one draws about others? We suggest that perceivers draw dispositional inferences about 0 target (characterization) and then adjust these inferences with 0 information about **the/0** constraints on **the** target's behaviors (correction). Because 0 correction is (generally) more effortful than 0 characterization, 0 perceivers who devote cognitive resources to **the** regulation of their own behavior should be able to characterize 0 targets but unable to correct those characterizations. In Experiment 1, 0 unregulated subjects incidentally ignored **an** irrelevant stimulus while they observed **a** target's behavior, whereas 0 self-regulated subjects purposefully ignored **the** same irrelevant stimulus. In Experiment 2, 0 unregulated subjects expressed their sincere affection toward **a** target, whereas 0 self-regulated subjects expressed false affection. In both experiments, 0/**the** self-regulated subjects were less likely than 0/**the** unregulated subjects to correct their characterizations of **the** target. **The** results suggest that 0 social interaction (which generally requires **the** self-regulation of ongoing behavior) may profoundly affect the way in which 0 active perceivers process information about others.

Key to Exercise 2.3E: Prepositional Expressions

{Legend: -- = no preposition; a / b = either a or b}

- 1)by
- 2a)in; with
- 2b)with
- 3a)for
- 3b)of
- 3c)On
- 3d)into
- 4)accustomed to
/adapted to
- 5)--
- 6)to; for
- 7)of
- 8a)to
- 8b)with;
on/about
- 8c)on/about
- 9a)--
- 9b)for
- 9c)of/--
- 10)to
- 11a)for
- 11b)to
- 12a)to
- 12b)for
- 13)On/Upon
- 14)for
- 15)to
- 16a)to
- 16b)on
- 17)of
- 18)by
- 19)at; at
- 20)of
- 21a)for
- 21b)of
- 22)AmE: to
BrE: for
- 23)for
- 24)--
- 25)from; with/by
- 26a)to
- 26b)with
- 27)of
- 28)about
- 29a)--
- 29b)--/as(?)
- 29c)as
- 29d)into
- 30a)of

30b)in
31a)of
31b)for
32a)of
32b)of
32c)at
33)on; on; on; on
34)in
35)to/in(?)
36)for
37)on
38)of
39a)in
39b)of
40a)with; about/on
40b)in
40c)from
40d)from
(BrE: to)
41)at
42a)from
42b)between; and / from; to
43a)between
43b)among
43c)into
44)in
45)in
46a)--
46b)into
47a)in support of/ for
47b)of
48a)of/for
48b)to
49)with
50)for
51)of
52)of
53a)AmE: out
BrE: in
53b)in; on
53c)in for
54)in; with
55)of
56)into
57a)of
57b)of; about
58a)in
58b)in
58c)by/--
59a)of
59b)on
59c)from

60)of
61)into
62a)in
62b)of; to
63a)at
63b)with
64)behind
65)at
66a)to
66b)--
67a)to
67b)by; of
68)--
69)of
70a)to
70b)to
71a)In
71b)of
71c)on/about
72)in
73)on
74)to
75)to
76)of
77)from
78)in
79)to
80a)of
80b)in
81)to
82)by
83)of
84a)to/with
84b)between
84c)in; to
85)to
86a)of
86b)of
87a)on/into
87b)into/on
87c)in
88a)of
88b)of/from
88c)for
89)for
90)of
91a)in; in/within
91b)at; in/within
92)to
93a)since
93b)for
94a)of

94b)on
95)for; with
96a)at/on
96b)in
96c)in
97)from
98)of
99)to
100a)on
100b)in
101)from; into
102a)of
102b)of/for; at
103)until
104)in/of(?)
105a)on/about
105b)of
105c)In
105d)to
106a)for
106b)on
107)to

Key to Exercise 2.5.1E: Verb Tense

Part I

Psychologists study X. . . .

This tense tells the reader that the action (studying X) is something about what all or most social psychologists generally do.

Psychologists are studying X. . . .

This tense tells the reader about a particular activity being engaged in by some psychologists; this activity is actually going on at the time that the sentence appears in a publication.

Psychologists studied X. . . .

This tense tells the reader about a particular activity engaged in by some psychologists at some past time which is now over.

Psychologists have studied X. . . .

This tense tells the reader about an activity that psychologists have been engaging in since some point of time in the past; the activity is still ongoing at the time of the sentence's publication.

Psychologists have been studying X. . . .

Here the meaning is the same as that in the previous sentence, except that there is more emphasis on the activity (studying) itself in this sentence.

Part II

The correct answer(s) appear within square brackets.

- 1) X [has worn / has been wearing] glasses since he was 11 years old. *The -ing form puts more emphasis on the activity of wearing.*
- 2) The minister's attempts to reform the health care system [are creating] optimism in some circles.
- 3) X [usually smokes] Marlboros, but tonight she [is smoking] Lucky Strikes.
- 4) X [has lived / has been living] in Utrecht since 1965. *See explanation in Sentence 1.*
- 5) X [lived] in Utrecht from 1965 to 1986.
- 6) X [has visited] New York twice in her life.
- 7) X [visited] New York twice during her trip to the U.S.
- 8) X [visited] New York in 1988.
- 9) When X [was] in New York, she [stayed] with friends.
- 10) When Y [arrives], we will begin preparing dinner.

- 11) You [are / are being] stupid. *The first form conveys a general attribution of global and enduring stupidity. The second conveys an attribution of stupidity to some aspect of the other's present behavior.*
- 12) [Have you seen / Did you hear see] this morning's newspaper? *The first form is appropriate if it is still "this morning." The second form is appropriate if the question is posed at a later time on the same day.*

Key to Exercise 2.5.2E: Conditional Sentences

- 1) If he took his medicines more regularly, he would be healthier.
- 2) If I'm in Leiden, I'll give you a call [call you].
- 3) If you add two and two, you get four.
- 4) If researchers had paid more attention to this point, fewer mistakes would have been made.
- 5) If researchers paid more attention to this point, fewer mistakes would be made.
- 6) If researchers had paid more attention to this point, we would not know more.
- 7) If Z [read] the newspaper more often, he would be better informed.
- 8) If Z [had read] the newspaper last Tuesday, he would have seen your article.
- 9) If Z [reads] the newspaper every day, he will stay well informed.

Key to Exercise 2.5.3E: The Subjunctive

- 1) It is advisable that persons in the following risk groups [**be / should be**] vaccinated against influenza:
- 2) It is advisable that persons in the following risk groups [**be / should be**] vaccinated against influenza:
- 3) **ORIGINAL SENTENCE CORRECT**
- 4) It was advised that persons in the following groups [**be / should be**] vaccinated against influenza:
- 5) We recommend that he **take** biology instead of chemistry.
- 6) **ORIGINAL SENTENCE CORRECT**
- 7) They recommended that he **take** biology instead of chemistry.
- 8) Theory X proposes that $a = b = c$; but what if it **proposed** that $b = c = d$?

- 9) Most chemists believe that theory X is valid; but what if it **were** not?
- 10) If theory X had been valid, then our results would have been consistent with it.
- 11) If I **am** elected president, my first priority **will be** health care.
 If I **were** elected president, my first priority **would be** health care.
The first sentence could be uttered by someone with some chance of becoming president.
The second sentence could be uttered by someone with very little chance of ever becoming president.
- 12) The committee recommended that AIOs [**be / should be**] paid more.
- 13) The committee recommended that AIOs [**be / should be**] paid more.
- 14) It is imperative that some future researcher [will examine / examines / **examine / should examine / is examining**] this question.
- 15) Peters recommended [that Van Dijk is promoted / **that Van Dijk be promoted / that Van Dijk should be promoted / Van Dijk to be promoted / Van Dijk's being promoted**].
- 16) The chairman proposed [that the speaker limits / **that the speaker limit / that the speaker should limit / the speaker to limit / the speaker's limiting**] his comments to 15 minutes.

Key to Exercise 2.5.5E: Verbal Constructions

The correct verbal constructions appear in bold type.

- 1) They have no desire [**to leave / leaving / of leaving**].
- 2) They have no intention [to attend / attending / **of attending**] the meeting.
- 3) They announced their intention [**to attend / attending / of attending**] the meeting.
- 4) The interventions were aimed [to oppose / to opposing / **at opposing**] the negative effects of employee burn-out.
- 5) The experimenter admitted [**that the procedure had involved deception / the procedure to have involved deception**].
- 6) The author admitted [**that he had falsified / to falsify / to have falsified / having falsified / to having falsified**] the results.
- 7) The eminent professor announced [**that she would retire / to retire / being retiring / retiring / her retirement**].
- 8) She was accused [to be / being / for being / **of being**] overly ambitious.
- 9) The results appear [that they are / **to be / be / being / (no extra words also o.k.)**] consistent with previous findings.

- 10) Walters insisted [to replicate / replicating / for replicating / **on replicating**] the findings before attempting [**to publish** / publishing] them.
- 11) Rich and Blinder did not succeed [to show / showing / at showing / **in showing**] that their theory could explain these data.
- 12) The committee announced [**that it was ready** / to be ready / being ready / **its readiness**] to begin discussions on the issue.
- 13) Following this procedure will prevent [that experimenter effects occur / experimenter effects to occur / experimenter effects occurring / **experimenter effects from occurring**].
- 14) We decided [**that three IVs (sh/w)ould be included** / **to include three IVs**] in the design.
- 15) It was decided [**that three IVs (sh/w)ould be included** / to include three IVs] in the design. *Note: The second possibility might be acceptable usage in British English.*
- 16) Jones claimed [**that X is the cause of Y**; X to be the cause of Y / X being the cause of Y].
- 17) Ellis has proposed a method [to measure / **of measuring**] the effects of this variable. *Note: The second possibility is preferable, but the first possibility is also used by some writers.*
- 18) Jones claimed [**that he was an expert on this topic** / **to be an expert on this topic** / being expert on this topic].
- 19) Reynolds insisted [**that A is the cause of** / A to be the cause of / A to cause] B.
- 20) Researchers are responsible [to ensure / **for ensuring**] the safety of their subjects.
- 21) These results imply [**that Q underlies the Z effect** / Q to underlie the Z effect / Q underlying the Z effect].
- 22) He is not accustomed [to receive / **to receiving**] such high praise.
- 23) STP is a technique [to enhance / **for enhancing**] the recall of eyewitnesses. *Note: The second possibility is preferable, but the first is also used by some writers.*
- 24) They were delighted [**to hear** / hearing] that their research had been well received.
- 25) Their intention is [**to surprise** / surprising] her with the news.
- 26) His favorite leisure activity is [to camp / **camping**] in the wilderness.
- 27) Schwartz attempted [that he would demonstrate / **to demonstrate** / demonstrating] that Miller's theory is untenable.

- 28) Most participants looked forward [to attend / **to attending**] the weekly training sessions.
- 29) The researchers who choose [that they study / **to study** / studying / for studying] this topic tend to have a personal interest in it.
- 30) Volsky sought [that he would persuade / **to persuade** / persuading / for persuading] his readers that too much knowledge in this area could be dangerous.
- 31) The inconsistency of the results of research in this area prevents us [that we can / to be able to / being able to / against being able to / **from being able to**] draw any firm conclusions.
- 32) Few researchers have been successful [to demonstrate / **in demonstrating**] such an effect in the laboratory.
- 33) They were able [**to perform** / performing / of performing] the calculations.
- 34) They were capable [to perform / performing / **of performing**] the calculations. *Note: Although the third possibility is definitely the most appropriate, the first is also sometimes seen.*
- 35) [To smoke / **Smoking**] cigarettes can cause lung cancer.
- 36) These patients avoided [that they would get / to get / **getting**] into arguments with the nursing staff.
- 37) She recommended [**that we adopt** / to adopt / **adopting**] Wier's method.
- 38) Morris denied [**that she had falsified** / to have falsified / **having falsified**] her data.
- 39) They continued [**to discuss** / **discussing**] the matter until 17:00.
- 40) The authorities should not permit [to eat / **eating**] on the train. The authorities should not permit people [**to eat**/ eating] on the train.
- 41) He did not remember [**that he had locked** / **to lock** / **locking** / **having locked**] the door.
- 42) We stopped [**to buy** / **buying**] cigarettes.
- 43) He tried [**to climb** / climbing] over the fence. He failed, however, because the fence was too tall. So he then tried [to use / **using**] a ladder to get over the fence.

Extra Sentences for Correction

- 44) The speaker reminded **the audience** that lunch would follow his address.
- 45) The authors **explained** that lawfulness and determinism are not equated in the dynamical systems approach. *Or:* The authors **discussed the distinction between lawfulness and determinism** in the dynamical systems approach.
- 46) We had trouble **selecting** an appropriate statistical method.
- 47) The teacher told **the pupils** that there would be no final exam.

- 48) His supervisor advised **him** to pursue the project.
- 49) Some subjects had difficulty **following** the instructions. *Or:* Some subjects **found it difficult to follow** the instructions.
- 50) These findings compel **us** to conclude that theory J is not valid under these circumstances.
- 51) The legal proceedings obstructed **further research**.

Extra Sentences for Translation

- 52) Wij lieten de computers repareren. **We had the computers repaired.**
- 53) Roken in school is verboden. **Smoking in school is forbidden. It is forbidden to smoke in school.**
- 54) Het was niet te geloven. **It was not to be believed. / It was unbelievable.**

Key to Exercise 4.1E: Sentence Structure

There are many ways to correct these sentence structures. Below are a few examples.

- (1) If all of the cutbacks are implemented, in 1988 the basic allowance will be 425 guilders and the supplementary allowance will be 473 guilders. Together this is 898 guilders, an amount that will have to be supplemented through work or loans with some three hundred guilders if the student is to have a decent monthly income.
- (2) We ran out of money to pay subjects, which is why there are so few subjects per cell.
- We ran out of money to pay subjects. This is why there are so few subjects per cell.
- (3) SPSS heeft een aantal systeem variabelen en een aantal systeem functies; deze staan in Appendix A en B van de handleiding.
- SPSS heeft een aantal systeem variabelen en een aantal systeem functies. Deze staan in Appendix A en B van de handleiding.

Key to Exercise 4.5E: Word Order

- 1) He was not **even** aware of the news. **Even** he was not aware of the news.
- 2) He **almost** swam two hundred yards. He swam **almost** two hundred yards.
- 3) Reptiles are too big to adapt themselves **quickly** to new conditions.
- 4) To lose one's temper **often** signifies a lack of self-control. **Often** losing one's temper signifies a lack of self-control.
- 5) They have **always** been interested in physics.
- 6) The tomato plant is very susceptible to serious injury from a number of diseases **in all stages of growth**. **In all stages of growth**, the tomato plant is very susceptible to serious injury from a number of diseases.
- 7) According to this model human memory should be represented **metaphorically** as an associative network.
- 8) Affect is assumed to **selectively** activate mood-congruent concepts in memory. Affect is assumed to activate mood-congruent concepts in memory **selectively**.
- 9) Positive mood does not **always** lead **directly** to more efficient information processing.
- 10) Affective reactions are regulated **automatically** by means of internalized social norms. Affective reactions are regulated by means of **automatically** internalized social norms.
- 11) Effects of mood may be controlled **consciously**. Effects of mood may be **consciously** controlled.
- 12) The model is insufficiently specific about **exactly** how these factors influence memory.
- 13) Ten subjects participated in the sessions at the workplace.
- 14) It is probable that a baited line was used without a hook in very early times.
- 15) We think these molecules have a good deal of freedom in the liquid state.
- 16) It is said that 40,000 artists were at work in Paris during the early part of the 20th century.
- 17) The meeting planned for next week has been postponed.
- 18) There are striking correspondences between the two approaches.
- 19) Defense mechanisms were measured using the XYZ, a questionnaire developed by Peters et al. (1988).
- 20) Data are presented on admissions to general hospitals due to attempted suicide.

- 21) Reality perception and affective involvement accounted for most of the variance in fear of crime. Reality perception and affective involvement were especially important predictors of fear of crime.
- 22) A factor analysis was performed on the data.
- 23) Soon after, various European enterprises and governments also became interested in these programs.
- 24) The American approach may be not only socially unacceptable but also inefficient.
- 25) Changes at the organizational and environmental level will require not only measures to support behavioral change, but also the identification and elimination of risks and obstacles in the learning environment.
- 26) Interventions at this level also have important political implications.

Key to Exercise 5.3E: A Spelling Test

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> annoint | <input type="checkbox"/> anoint |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> coolly | <input type="checkbox"/> cooly |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> supersede | <input type="checkbox"/> supercede |
| 4. <input type="checkbox"/> irresistible | <input type="checkbox"/> irresistable |
| 5. <input type="checkbox"/> developement | <input type="checkbox"/> development |
| 6. <input type="checkbox"/> alright | <input type="checkbox"/> all right |
| 7. <input type="checkbox"/> seperate | <input type="checkbox"/> separate |
| 8. <input type="checkbox"/> tyranny | <input type="checkbox"/> tyrrany |
| 9. <input type="checkbox"/> harrass | <input type="checkbox"/> harass |
| 10. <input type="checkbox"/> desiccate | <input type="checkbox"/> dessicate |
| 11. <input type="checkbox"/> indispensable | <input type="checkbox"/> indispensible |
| 12. <input type="checkbox"/> recieve | <input type="checkbox"/> receive |
| 13. <input type="checkbox"/> pursue | <input type="checkbox"/> persue |
| 14. <input type="checkbox"/> reccomend | <input type="checkbox"/> recommend |
| 15. <input type="checkbox"/> desperate | <input type="checkbox"/> desparate |
| 16. <input type="checkbox"/> liquify | <input type="checkbox"/> liquefy |
| 17. <input type="checkbox"/> seize | <input type="checkbox"/> sieze |

- | | | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|---------------|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| 18. | <input type="checkbox"/> | cemetary | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | cemetery |
| 19. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | subpoena | <input type="checkbox"/> | subpena |
| 20. | <input type="checkbox"/> | definatly | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | definitely |
| 21. | <input type="checkbox"/> | ocassion | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | occasion |
| 22. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | consensus | <input type="checkbox"/> | concensus |
| 23. | <input type="checkbox"/> | inadvertant | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | inadvertent |
| 24. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | minuscule | <input type="checkbox"/> | miniscule |
| 25. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | judgment | <input type="checkbox"/> | judgement |
| 26. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | inoculate | <input type="checkbox"/> | innoculate |
| 27. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | drunkenness | <input type="checkbox"/> | drunkeness |
| 28. | <input type="checkbox"/> | occurence | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | occurrence |
| 29. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | dissipate | <input type="checkbox"/> | disippate |
| 30. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | weird | <input type="checkbox"/> | wierd |
| 31. | <input type="checkbox"/> | alot | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | a lot |
| 32. | <input type="checkbox"/> | accomodate | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | accommodate |
| 33. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | embarrassment | <input type="checkbox"/> | embarassment |
| 34. | <input type="checkbox"/> | ecstacy | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | ecstasy |
| 35. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | repetition | <input type="checkbox"/> | repitition |
| 36. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | battalion | <input type="checkbox"/> | batallion |
| 37. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | despair | <input type="checkbox"/> | dispair |
| 38. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | irritable | <input type="checkbox"/> | irritible |
| 39. | <input type="checkbox"/> | accidently | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | accidentally |
| 40. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | liaison | <input type="checkbox"/> | liason |
| 41. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | memento | <input type="checkbox"/> | momento |
| 42. | <input type="checkbox"/> | brocolli | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | broccoli |
| 43. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | millennium | <input type="checkbox"/> | millenium |
| 44. | <input type="checkbox"/> | yeild | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | yield |
| 45. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | existence | <input type="checkbox"/> | existance |

46. independent independant
47. sacreligious sacrilegious
48. insistent insistant
49. excede exceed
50. privilege priviledge

Part 7
Reference List

Part 7: Reference List & Bibliography

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Part 8

Glossary of Grammatical Terms

Part 8: Glossary of Grammatical Terms

This section provides Dutch translations, basic definitions, and examples of grammatical terms used in this reader. The definitions are adapted from those which appear in Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary.

adjective (*bijvoeglijk naamwoord*) A word used as a modifier (*bepaling*) of a noun.
Ex.: *quick, extreme, conscious, good*

adverb (*bijwoord*) A word used as a modifier (*bepaling*) of a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a preposition, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence.
Ex.: *quickly, extremely, consciously, well*

antecedent (*antecedent*) A word, phrase, or clause referred to by a pronoun.
In the following sentence, *questionnaire* is the antecedent of the relative pronoun *that*:
She developed the questionnaire that we will be using.

article (*lidwoord*) A word used to limit or give definiteness to a noun.
Ex.: *a, an, the*

clause A group of words containing a subject and a predicate.

main clause (*hoofdzin*): The clause expressing the chief predication in a complex sentence; a main clause can stand by itself as a sentence.

subordinate clause (*bijzin*): A clause that functions as a noun, adjective, or adverb.

relative clause (*betrekkelijke bijzin*): A subordinate clause which is introduced by a relative pronoun and which modifies or qualifies the antecedent of the relative pronoun.

Ex.: *She developed the questionnaire that we will be using.*

conjunction (*voegwoord*) A word that joins together sentences, clauses, phrases, or words.
Ex.: *and, but, when, although*

direct object (*lijdend voorwerp*) The primary recipient or result of the action of a verb.
Ex.: *I analyzed the data.*

indirect object (*meewerkend voorwerp*) The secondary recipient of the action of a verb
Ex.: *He showed them the data.*

linking verb A verb (such as a form of *be, become, feel, seem*) which links a sentence subject with a predicate noun or predicate adjective. (See "sentence types" below.)

Ex.: *That is a controversial article.*

That article is controversial.

noun (*zelfstandig naamwoord*) A word denoting a person, animal, place, thing, quality, idea, action, etc.

Ex.: *research, psychology, concept*

noun equivalent A word or group of words which function together as a noun and in which a noun is the central component.

predicate (*gezegde*) The part of a clause that includes a verb (with or without objects or modifiers) and expresses what is said of the subject.

Ex.: *My coauthor is away on vacation.*

predicate adjective An adjective connected to a sentence subject with a linking verb.

Ex.: *This article is controversial.*

predicate noun A noun or noun equivalent connected to a sentence subject with a linking verb. (See "sentence types" below.)

Ex.: *This is a controversial article.*

preposition (*voorzetsel*) A word used in combination with a noun or noun equivalent to form a phrase that typically has an adjectival or adverbial function.

Ex.: *in, under, about*

pronoun (*voornaamwoord*) A word that is used as a substitute for a noun or noun equivalent and refers to persons or things named or understood in the context.

personal pronouns: *I, me, you, she, her, he, him, we, us, they, them;*

relative pronouns: *who, whom, whose, that, which*

sentence (*zin*) A group of words expressing a complete thought, and including at least one main clause
simple sentence: One main clause; no subordinate clause.

Ex.: *I analyzed the data.*

compound sentence: Two or more main clauses joined by a conjunction.

Ex.: *I analyzed the data, and my coauthor went on vacation.*

complex sentence: One main clause and one or more subordinate clauses, joined by a conjunction.

Ex.: *I analyzed the data while my coauthor was on vacation.*

sentence types (the five most common)

S-V = Subject - Verb

He is reading.

S-V-DO = Subject - Verb - Direct Object

He is reading a story.

S-V-IO-DO = Subject - Verb - Indirect Object - Direct Object

He is reading his daughter a book.

S-LV-PN = Subject - Linking Verb - Predicate Noun

He is a student.

S-LV-PA = Subject - Linking Verb - Predicate Adjective

He is trustworthy.

subject (*onderwerp*) The noun or noun equivalent whose action, state, or characteristics are described by the predicate of a clause.

Ex.: *My coauthor is away on vacation.*

verb (*werkwoord*) A word that usually forms the grammatical core of a predicate, and expresses an act, occurrence, or mode of being.

Ex.: *to study, to be, to seem, to write*

verb forms

active voice (*bedrijvende vorm*) *We rented a computer.*

passive voice (*lijdende vorm*) *A computer was rented.*

continuous (or progressive) (*-ing vorm*) *We are/were renting a computer.*

subjunctive (*subjunctief*) A verb form that represents a denoted act or state not as fact but as contingent or possible or viewed emotionally.

It is essential that she rent (not "rents") her own computer.

verb tenses (*tijden*)

simple present (*onvoltooid tegenwoordige*) *We rent a computer every year at Christmas time.*

present perfect (*voltooid tegenwoordige*) *We have rented a computer.*

simple past (*onvoltooid verleden*) *We rented a computer.*

past perfect (*voltooid verleden*) *We had rented a computer.*

future simple (*onvoltooid toekomstige*) *We will rent a computer.*

future perfect (*voltooid toekomstige*) *We will have rented a computer.*

verbal

A verb which serves the grammatical function of a noun or adjective.

There are three main types of verbals: gerunds, infinitives, and participles.

Gerund = the -ing form of a verb, when it is used as a noun.

Ex.: *Fishing is his favorite leisure activity.*

Infinitive = The "to" form of a verb, when it is used as a noun.

Ex.: *To climb Mt. Everest was their greatest ambition.*

Participle = The past participle of a verb, when it is used as an adjective.

Ex.: *They noticed a broken window.*