

MARK PENNINGTON

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THE PENNINGTON MANUAL OF STYLE

THE COMPREHENSIVE WRITING GUIDE TO
ENGLISH GRAMMAR, USAGE, MECHANICS,
SPELLING, AND COMPOSITION.

The Pennington Manual of Style

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Introduction

Thank you for your purchase of *The Pennington Manual of Style*. With the resources of this eBook, you will be able to add our prescriptive comments (and your own) into the Autocorrects found in Microsoft Word®. You will be able to insert these comments into the margins of your students' digital Microsoft Word® submissions or create a comments document to print out for your students' paper submissions.

The user-friendly *The Pennington Manual of Style* provides 438 writing tips. Each writing tip has a concise definition, explanation, and a clear example. Writing tips are organized into these categories: Essay Organization and Development (Introduction, Body, and Conclusion), Coherence, Word Choice, Sentence Variety, Writing Style, Format and Citations, Parts of Speech, Grammatical Forms, Usage, Sentence Structure, Types of Sentences, Mechanics, and Conventional Spelling Rules. As a quick reference guide, this style manual will help students learn *what* is correct and *why* it is correct.

For teachers, this guide will provide a common language of writing instruction and discourse for teachers and students. Teachers will find the concise writing tips useful for both direct instruction and essay comments. And most importantly, all 438 writing tips have been formatted as Essay e-Comments for the Autocorrect function of Microsoft Word®. After adding in the comment bank, the teacher simply types in the assigned alphanumeric code and the entire formatted writing comment appears where desired on the student's Word document or on a printed comments page.

Using Essay e-Comments Makes Sense

- Manually responding to essays in red ink can be time-consuming and frustrating. Teachers find themselves using the same comments over and over again, while most students rarely read and/or apply them.
- Using Essay e-Comments will save time. Most teachers can respond to and/or evaluate essays in half the time it takes to manually correct.
- Using Essay e-Comments simply does a better job than manual correction. Each comment has a definition, explanation, and example to help students learn *what* is correct and *why* it is correct. And teachers can add in their own comments. Unlike other e-grading programs, teachers can save their custom comments.
- Having students submit their essays on the computer allows the teacher to insert comprehensive and prescriptive comments into their Microsoft Word® documents. Teachers can require their students to address each comment by using Microsoft Word® "Track Changes." Students then re-submit revisions and edits for peer and/or teacher review.
- Teachers can select and print out Essay e-Comments for paper submissions to provide response/editing feedback and/or to supplement an evaluative rubric.
- Using the 438 e-comments enhances the interactive writing process. The teacher-student interaction changes from static summative evaluation to dynamic formative assessment.

How to Get Started

First, download the 438 Essay e-Comments. The following link simply adds to your existing Autocorrects in Microsoft Word® 2003, 2007, 2010, or 2013. Windows XP, Vista, Win 7, Win 8, and Win 10 all work fine. Win 8 and 10 will prevent the “app,” because of the unrecognized source. Just click “Run Anyway.” Occasionally, teachers on school networks will need to contact their systems administrator to allow the essay e-comments download. Simply copy and paste this link to add the comments to your Autocorrects.

Essay e-comments download: <http://blog.penningtonpublishing.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/Autocorrects.exe>)

Next, read **How to Use e-Comments to Respond to and Evaluate Student Essays** to learn how to insert the e-comments. Practice on a word document by adding in and editing the sample M1 comment. Try adding in an audio comment and check out the Track Changes feature if you have not yet tried this helpful revision tool.

Next, read **How to Add Your Own Permanent Autocorrect Entries in Microsoft Word®**. The e-comments use the most common writing language of instruction; however, teachers have their own “pet” writing terminologies. To accommodate your choices of writing terms, instructions are provided to easily edit the e-comments.* Additionally, teachers will want to add on and store their own comments. Practice adding on a comment. I suggest you use the same alphanumeric pattern to keep things simple.

Next, skim and print the **Essay e-Comments Quick Reference Guide**. Note that these comments are not the prescriptive e-comments (which are designed to identify and teach), but are rather a convenient “cheat sheet” for teachers to use while grading papers. Most teachers will condense this list even further by cutting, pasting, and printing their “go to” comments. It makes sense to keep the category listings, as teachers will target certain essay responses for some papers and not for others.

With practice, your response time will decrease and as the quality of your responses increases. Don’t forget to teach your students how to use these resources for peer response.

*The e-comments apply a simple numeric system for the parts of an essay, which should work as symbols for your favorite labels for each essay component. The author uses this numerical hierarchy in his comprehensive *Teaching Essay Strategies* program.

How to Insert Essay e-Comments into Microsoft Word® Docs

1. Click on this link to download all 438 Essay e-Comments:

<http://penningtonpublishing.com/Autocorrects.exe>

The download has been tested for Microsoft Word® 2003, 2007, or 2010 (Windows XP, Vista, and Win 7).

2. Open up a student's essay in Microsoft Word®. Use the Quick Reference Guide, which has the alphanumeric entry codes and a short comment description, to guide your essay e-comment selection. The Quick Reference Guide organizes the essay e-comments into easy-to-find writing response categories. Highlight the ones you use most often or copy and paste to create your own Essay e-Comments short-cuts document.

3. Go to the **Review** tab in the **Comments** group. Left click the mouse where you want to place a comment. Click the **New Comment** image. In older Microsoft Word® versions, go to the **Insert** tab and then to **Comments**.



4. The comment balloon will appear in the right margin or in a reviewing pane at the bottom of the screen or to the left of the screen. Adjust the comment location under **Reviewing Pane** in the **Track Changes** group. The keyboard shortcut to include a new comment is **Ctrl + Alt + M**.

5. Type in the alphanumeric code for the selected essay e-comment and full comment appears in the comment balloon or where you decide is best.

To be or not to be: that is the **question**.

Comment [M1]: Revise: Too Many "to-be" Verbs Consider limiting use of *is, am, are, was, were, be, being, been* to one per paragraph. To replace "to be verbs":
1. Substitute a more active verb
2. Begin the sentence with another word from the sentence
3. Change one of the words in the sentence into a verb form.

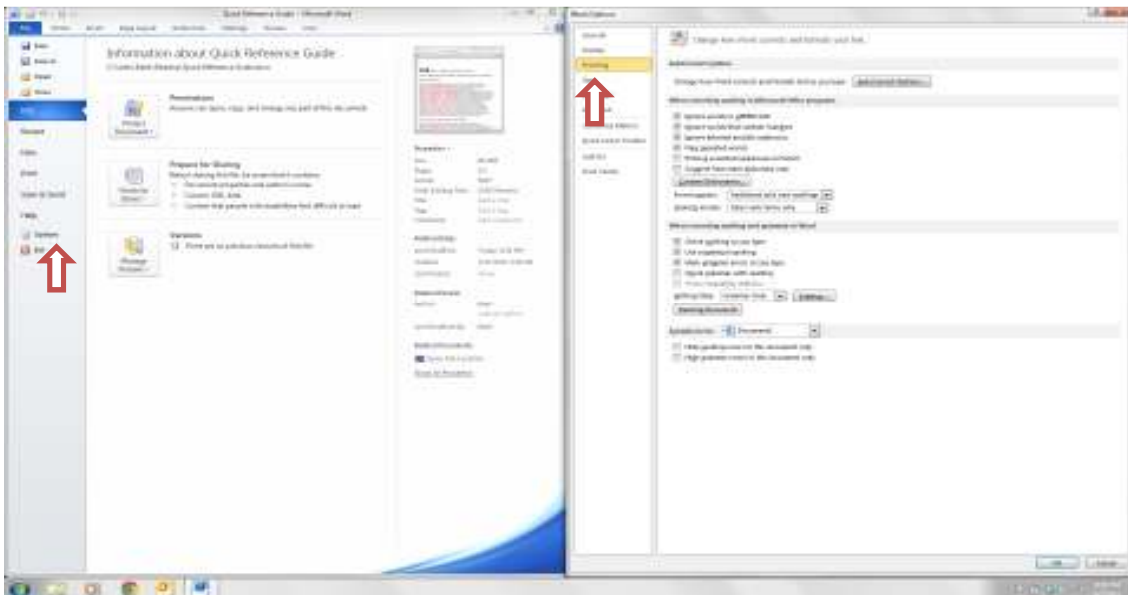
6. For repeated errors, simply **highlight** the text. The yellow marker is found under the "Home" tab. Of course, not every error need be marked. Consider using a balance of content and process essay e-comments, depending upon the instructional focus and the needs of each writer.

7. You can also personalize comments by adding to the comment balloons. You can even add audio comments to summarize overall strengths and weaknesses. To add an audio file (Sound Recorder) into Microsoft Word®, open **Start**; open **All Programs**; open **Accessories**; then open **Sound Recorder**. Click the button to start and stop recording. The **Save** menu will pop open and you can create a folder to save all of your audio files. Once saved, open up the folder and right click to copy the WMA file. Place your cursor where you want the file to appear in the student's essay and paste **Ctrl + V**. The Sound Recorder file stays minimized as you open up other Microsoft Word® files, so you don't have to go through the process each time. For better sound quality, I suggest using a microphone.

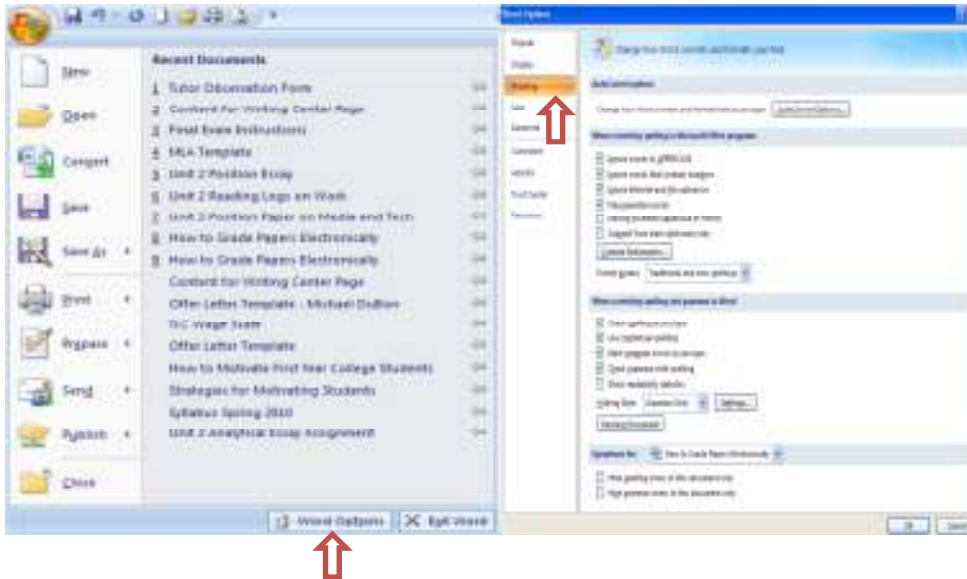
8. Teach your students to revise and edit their documents in response to your essay e-comments. I suggest using Microsoft Word® **Track Changes**. Teach your students to go the **Review** tab and click on **Track Changes**, then revise and edit their document by inserting, deleting, moving, or formatting text. The resources in **Change Tracking Options** provide custom color and formatting options. The keyboard shortcut to turn on **Track Changes** is **Ctrl + Shift + E**.

How to Add Your Own Permanent Autocorrect Entries in Microsoft Word®

1. You can add your own e-comments onto the 438 essay e-comments bank. Here's how: Type your e-comment. The text can include up to 255 characters of hyperlinks, different fonts, colors, italics, boldface, etc. Highlight, but don't copy the e-comment.
2. Click the Microsoft Word® 2010 **File**. Then click **Options**. Next click **Proofing**.

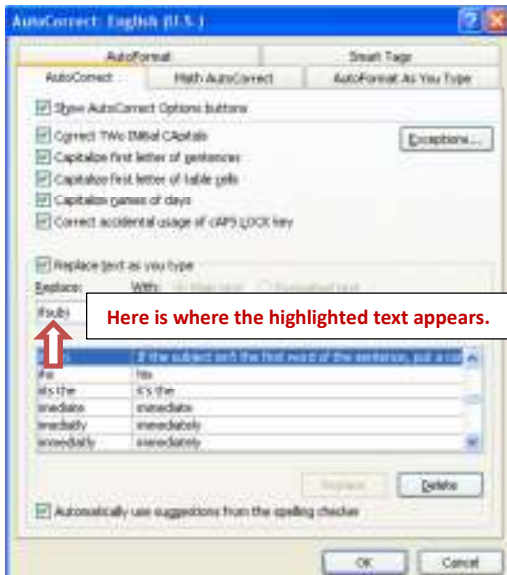


3. With previous Microsoft Office® versions (before 2010), click **File**. Then click **Word Options**. Next click **Proofing**.



4. Now click **AutoCorrect Options**. This page is similar in all recent Microsoft Word® versions. The highlighted text will appear within the **With:** text box.

5. Enter an alpha-numerical code in the **Replace:** text box and click **OK**.



6. Your own essay e-comment is now permanently saved on your computer. I suggest that you save all of your additional e-comments in a Microsoft Word® document so that you can easily add these on to other computers.

Quick Reference Guide

Essay Organization and Development: Introduction, Body, and Conclusion

Introduction Paragraphs

- e1 Needs Another Introduction Strategy** Use at least two introduction strategies.
- e2 Needs a Different Introduction Strategy** Use a variety of introduction strategies.
- e3 Introduces Evidence** Don't introduce evidence in an introduction.
- e4 Mixes Narrative Genre** An essay introduction doesn't use a *hook* or *lead*.
- e5 Thesis Statement Misreads Writing Prompt** This essay is designed to inform the reader.
- e6 Thesis Statement Misreads Writing Prompt** This essay is designed to convince the reader.
- e7 Thesis statement does not respond to writing prompt.** Re-read and dissect the prompt.
- e8 Thesis statement does not state the purpose of the essay.** Re-read and dissect the prompt.
- e9 Thesis statement does not state your point of view.** Re-read and dissect the prompt.
- e10 Thesis statement is too general.** Get more specific in your thesis statement.
- e11 Thesis statement is too specific.** Your thesis statement needs to be a bit broader.
- e12 Thesis statement is inconsequential.** Your thesis statement must be meaningful.
- e13 Thesis statement cannot be argued.** Convincing a reader requires a debatable thesis.
- e14 Split Thesis Statement** A split thesis includes two purposes or two points of view.
- e15 Thesis statement responds to only part of the writing prompt.** Respond to the whole.
- e16 References to Own Writing** Don't include references to your own writing.

Body Paragraphs: Argument, Analysis, Types of Evidence

- e17 Needs Topic Sentence** Every body paragraph requires a topic sentence.
- e18 Needs Concluding Statement** You need to re-connect to the topic sentence here.
- e19 Delete concluding statement.** Not every body paragraph requires a concluding statement.
- e20 Major Details Not of Same Content Category** Major details must relate to each other.
- e21 Major Details Not of Same Importance** Major details be the same level of importance.

(Body Paragraphs: Argument, Analysis, Types of Evidence Continued)

- e22 Minor detail does not relate to major detail.** Minor details directly support major details.
- e23 Sequence Problems** This sentence is improperly placed and so confuses the reader.
- e24 Inadequate Development** More evidence is needed to support the topic sentence.
- e25 Irrelevant** This point does not specifically address the focus of the essay.
- e26 Add support evidence.** More evidence is needed to adequately support the major detail.
- e27 Needs Support Evidence Variety** Body paragraph needs more support evidence variety.
- e28 Define Terms or Special Words** This term or word should be defined.
- e29 Get more specific.** The support evidence is too general.
- e30 Off Topic** Focus is off the controlling idea.
- e31 Synonym Error** This word or term is not the same as its reference.
- e32 Non Sequitur Error** The conclusion cannot be reached from the facts presented.
- e33 Red Herring Error** An unconnected reference distracts the reader from the argument.
- e34 Unsupported Generalization Error** This generalization is not warranted.
- e35 Poisoning the Well Error** You have “sneaked in” a criticism as part of your argument.
- e36 Cause and Effect Error** You haven’t established a necessary cause-effect relationship.
- e37 Begging the Question Error** You assume to be true what has yet to be proven.
- e38 Either-Or Error** You present a false choice; there are other options.
- e39 Comparison Error** You compare or contrast unrelated ideas.
- e40 Questionable Authority Error** This source does not have the required expertise.
- e41 Contradiction Error** This statement contradicts what you have already said.
- e42 Inconsistency Error** This part of the argument does not agree or fit in the other parts.
- e43 Omission Error** Necessary information is missing.
- e44 Oversimplification Error** This complicated idea is oversimplified.
- e45 Sampling Error** This conclusion cannot be justified due to the sample data.

Conclusion Paragraphs

- e46 Needs Thesis Re-statement** Your conclusion needs to begin with a thesis re-statement.
- e47 Needs Another Conclusion Strategy** Use at least two conclusion strategies.
- e48 Needs a Different Conclusion Strategy** Use a variety of conclusion strategies.
- e49 Needs Finished Feeling** Your conclusion needs to provide a finished feeling for the reader.

Coherence, Word Choice, Sentence Variety, and Writing Style

Coherence

- e50 Not Clear** Your meaning is unclear.
- e51 Needs Definition Transition** Provide a transition that signals a definition.
- e52 Needs Example Transition** Provide a transition that signals an example.
- e53 Needs Addition Transition** Provide a transition that signals an addition.
- e54 Needs Sequence Transition** Provide a transition that signals a sequence or list.
- e55 Needs Analysis Transition** Provide a transition that signals an analysis.
- e56 Needs Comparison Transition** Provide a transition that signals a comparison.
- e57 Needs Contrast Transition** Provide a transition that signals a contrast.
- e58 Needs Cause-Effect Transition** Provide a transition that signals a cause-effect relationship.
- e59 Needs Conclusion Transition** Provide a transition that signals a conclusion.
- e60 Awkward** The sentence construction is awkward and requires revision.
- e61 Diction** Word choice is incorrect, unclear, or inappropriate.
- e62 Inconsistent Voice** The personality or voice of your writing style has shifted.
- e63 Inconsistent Tone** The attitude or tone of your writing style has shifted.

Word Choice

- e64 Wrong Word** The wrong word is used here.
- e65 Reversal** Two words have been reversed.
- e66 Define this term.** This term needs to be defined.
- e67 Delete this word(s).** This is unnecessary to the development of the paragraph.
- e68 Overused Word(s)** This word or phrase has been used excessively.
- e69 Syntax Errors** Word order is confused.
- e70 Word Placement** This word is not properly placed to emphasize its importance.

Sentence Variety

- e71 Grammatical Sentence Opener** Vary your sentence structure.
- e72 Sentence Length** Vary your sentence lengths.

Writing Style

- e73 Redundancy** This word or phrase is repetitious.
- e74 Needs Parallel Structure** This idea or sentence structure needs parallel structure.
- e75 Delete slang.** Essays don't include slang.
- e76 Delete poetic device.** Essays don't include poetic devices.
- e77 Delete figure of speech.** Essays don't include figures of speech.
- e78 Revise rhetorical question.** Avoid rhetorical questions in essays.
- e79 Revise informal writing.** Essays use formal writing.
- e80 Revise: Too Many "to be" Verbs** Eliminate "to be" verb

(Writing Style Continued)

- e81 Revise: Too Many Prepositional Phrase Strings** Eliminate this prepositional phrase.
- e82 Revise parenthetical remarks.** Avoid using parenthetical remarks in essays.
- e83 Don't start sentences with coordinating conjunctions.** Delete beginning conjunction.
- e84 Don't split infinitives.** Remove word placed between the "to" and the base form of the verb.
- e85 Don't end sentences with prepositions.** Revise to eliminate ending preposition.
- e86 Revise double negative.** Revise to eliminate the double negative.
- e87 Using *not* as Denial** Avoid using the word *not* to deny a positive assertion.
- e88 Revise passive voice.** Avoid using passive voice.
- e89 Excessively Wordy** Eliminate unnecessary words at the beginning of sentences.
- e90 Excessively Wordy** Eliminate *who*, *which*, and *that* if possible.
- e91 Excessively Wordy** Replace wordy and weak verb forms with strong verbs.
- e92 Excessively Wordy** "_tion" and "_sion" noun constructions with strong verbs.
- e93 Excessively Wordy** Replace prepositional phrases with modifiers when possible.
- e94 Excessively Wordy** Combine two sentences with a colon to indicate their relationship.
- e95 Excessively Wordy** Combine two sentences into one.
- e96 Omit Needless Words** Delete expressions that do not add meaning, such as the word *that*.
- e97 Omit Needless Words** Delete expressions such as *who is* and *which is*.
- e98 Needs 3rd Person** Compose essays in the third person, not in first or second person voice.
- e99 Overstated Idea** The idea or evidence is exaggerated or overstated.
- e100 No Abbreviations** Formal essays do not permit abbreviations. Acronyms are permitted.
- e101 No Contractions** Formal essays do not permit contractions.

Format and Citations

Format

- e102 Needs New Paragraph** New paragraphs are required for new ideas or new dialogue.
- e103 Paragraph Format** Indent one tab, if word processing or one inch, if writing.
- e104 Heading Format** Use MLA heading format.
- e105 Center Title** Center the title.
- e106 Transpose** Words, phrases, or clauses need to be in reverse order.
- e107 Margin Format** Set one inch margins on the top, bottom, left, and right.
- e108 Font** Use a non-cursive, un-bolded, commonly-used font in 12 point size.
- e109 Line Spacing** Double spaced, unless your teacher specifies otherwise.
- e110 Neatness** Neatness reflects work ethic.
- e111 Editing** Spell check, grammar check, and proofread.

Citations

- e112 **Needs Citation** You need to cite your source for this section.
- e113 **MLA Works Cited (Print Book)** Wrong citation format.
- e114 **MLA Works Cited (Print Encyclopedia)** Wrong citation format.
- e115 **MLA Works Cited (Print Journal)** Wrong citation format.
- e116 **MLA Works Cited (Print Magazine)** Wrong citation format.
- e117 **MLA Works Cited (Print Newspaper)** Wrong citation format.
- e118 **MLA Works Cited (Print Textbook or Anthology)** Wrong citation format.
- e119 **MLA Works Cited (Print Letter)** Wrong citation format.
- e120 **MLA Works Cited (Print Document)** Wrong citation format.
- e121 **MLA Works Cited (e-Book)** Wrong citation format.
- e122 **MLA Works Cited (Online Journal)** Wrong citation format.
- e123 **MLA Works Cited (Online Magazine)** Wrong citation format.
- e124 **MLA Works Cited (Online Encyclopedia)** Wrong citation format.
- e125 **MLA Works Cited (Web Document)** Wrong citation format.
- e126 **MLA Works Cited (Web-based Videos or Images)** Wrong citation format.
- e127 **MLA Works Cited (Blog)** Wrong citation format.
- e128 **MLA Works Cited (Podcast)** Wrong citation format.
- e129 **MLA Works Cited (E-Mail)** Wrong citation format.
- e130 **MLA Works Cited (Online Forum)** Wrong citation format.
- e131 **MLA Works Cited (Online Government Document)** Wrong citation format.
- e132 **MLA Works Cited (Radio or Television)** Wrong citation format.
- e133 **MLA Works Cited (Film or Recording)** Wrong citation format.
- e134 **MLA Works Cited (Online Interview)** Wrong citation format.
- e135 **MLA Works Cited (Lecture)** Wrong citation format.

Grammatical Forms

Nouns

- e136 **Common Noun** A common noun is an idea, person, place, or thing.
- e137 **Proper Noun** A proper noun is a capitalized name of a person, place, or thing.
- e138 **Compound Noun** A compound noun is usually formed by two or more words.
- e139 **Collective Noun** A collective noun is a common noun that refers to a group.
- e140 **Concrete Noun** A concrete noun can be perceived by the senses.
- e141 **Abstract Noun** An abstract noun cannot be perceived by the senses.
- e142 **Noun Phrase** A noun phrase consists of a proper or common noun with any related words.
- e143 **Noun Clause** The noun clause begins with words such as *if*, *however*, or the “wh” words.
- e144 **Gerund** A gerund is an _____ *ing* verb used as a noun.
- e145 **Gerund Phrase** A gerund phrase is an _____ *ing* verb with related words used as a noun.

Pronouns

- e146 Pronoun** A pronoun is a word used in place of a proper noun or common noun.
- e147 Pronoun (Point of View)** Confused first person, second person, or third person pronoun.
- e148 Subject (Nominative) Case Pronoun** Subject case pronoun error.
- e149 Subject (Nominative) Case Pronoun** Wrong pronoun used as a predicate nominative.
- e150 Subject (Nominative) Case Pronoun** Wrong pronoun used as an appositive.
- e151 Subject (Nominative) Case Pronoun** Pronouns are placed last in compound subjects.
- e152 Object Case Pronoun** Object case pronoun error.
- e153 Object Case Pronoun** An indirect object case needs an object case pronoun.
- e154 Objective Case Pronoun** An object of the preposition needs an object case pronoun.
- e155 Objective Case Pronoun** Use an object case pronoun to connect to an infinitive phrase.
- e156 Objective Case Pronoun** Pronouns are placed last in compound subjects.
- e157 Pronoun Antecedent** Keep pronoun antecedents close to their references.
- e158 Pronoun Antecedent** Make pronoun antecedents specific to their references.
- e159 Pronoun Antecedent** Don't use a pronoun that refers to the object of a preposition.
- e160 Pronoun Antecedent** If an antecedent is uncountable, use a singular pronoun reference.
- e161 Pronoun Antecedent** Clear references are needed for *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*.
- e162 Pronoun Antecedent** Don't have a pronoun refer to a possessive antecedent.
- e163 Pronoun Antecedent** The pronoun *who* serves as the subject and *whom* as the object.
- e164 Relative Pronoun** The *that*, *which*, *who*, *whom*, or *whose* must match their references.
- e165 Pronoun Restatement** Don't restate the subject with a pronoun in the same sentence.
- e166 Demonstrative Pronoun** Use *this* and *these* for near and *that* and *those* for far.
- e167 Indefinite Singular Pronoun** An indefinite singular pronoun takes a singular verb.
- e168 Indefinite Plural Pronoun** Singular or plural pronoun error.
- e170 Gender Pronoun** Gender pronoun problem.
- e171 1st Person Pronoun** Don't use 1st person pronouns in essays.
- e172 2nd Person Pronoun** Don't use 2nd person singular pronouns in essays.
- e173 3rd Person Pronoun** Use 3rd person singular pronouns in essays.
- e174 1st Person Possessive Pronoun** 1st person possessive pronoun error.
- e175 2nd Person Possessive Pronoun** 2nd person possessive pronoun error.
- e176 3rd Person Possessive Pronoun** 3rd person possessive pronoun error.
- e177 Possessive Pronoun Gerund Phrase** Possessive pronouns in gerund (*_ing*) phrase error.

(Pronouns Continued)

e178 Reflexive Pronoun Reflexive pronoun (“self” or “selves”) must refer to sentence subject.

e179 Reflexive Pronoun Reflexive pronoun (“self” or “selves”) as object of preposition error.

e180 Reflexive Pronoun Reflexive pronoun (“self” or “selves”) as sentence subject error.

e181 Reflexive Pronoun Don’t use reflexive pronouns (“self” or “selves”) as possessives.

e182 Intensive Pronoun Intensive pronoun (“self” or “selves”) emphasizes a noun or pronoun.

e183 Intensive Pronoun Don’t use intensive pronouns (“self” or “selves”) as possessives.

e184 Adjective Usually place adjectives before nouns, pronouns and the articles *a*, *an*, and *the*.

e185 Adjective Don’t use descriptive adjectives instead of specific nouns and verbs.

e186 Adjective Don’t use adjectives that provide little meaning to a sentence.

e187 Adjective Be specific as possible with your adjectives.

e188 Coordinate Adjective Use commas between adjectives that modify in the same way.

e189 Cumulative Adjective Don’t use commas between adjectives that modify differently.

e190 Adjective Phrase Phrase does not modify a proper noun, a common noun, or a pronoun.

e191 Adjective Clause Clause does not modify a proper noun, a common noun, or a pronoun.

e192 Article Misused article (*a*, *an*, *the*).

e193 Predicate Adjective Misused predicate adjective (follows a linking verb).

e194 Demonstrative Adjective Misused demonstrative adjective (*this*, *that*, *these*, *those*).

e195 Participle Misused participle (verb form that serves as an adjective).

e196 Participial Phrase Misused participial phrase (verb form that serves as an adjective).

Verbs

e197 Verb Misused verb (mental action, physical action, or state of being).

e198 Base Form of the Verb Misused verb base form of the verb (present tense form).

e199 Present Participle Verb Form Misused present participle verb form (*_ing*).

e200 Past Tense Verb Misused past tense verb (*_d* or *_ed*).

e201 Past Participle Verb Form Misused past participle verb form (*__d*, *_ed*, *_en*).

e202 Helping Verb: Form of Be Misused “to be” verb.

e203 Helping Verb: Form of Do Misused “do” verb: *does*, *do*, and *did*.

e204 Helping Verb: Form of Have Misused “have” verb: *has*, *have*, and *had*.

(Verbs Continued)

- e205 Helping Verb: Modal** Misused *can, could, may, might, must, should, will, would*.
- e206 Linking Verb** Misused linking verb (follows subject without a main verb).
- e207 Verb Phrase** Misused verb phrase (main verb and any related words).
- e208 Present Tense Verb** Misused present tense verb.
- e209 Present Tense Verb** The present tense can generalize or to show repeated action.
- e210 Present Tense Verb** The present tense can reference the future in dependent clauses.
- e211 Present Tense Verb** The present tense can be used to discuss literature and the arts.
- e212 Present Progressive Verb Form** Misused present progressive (“to be” verb + *_ing*).
- e213 Present Progressive Verb Form** Verb can’t use the present progressive form.
- e214 Present Perfect Tense Verb** Misused present perfect (*has* or *have* + *_d, _ed, _en*).
- e215 Present Perfect Tense Verb** Misused present perfect (*has* or *have* + *been* + *_d, _ed, _en*).
- e217 Present Perfect Progressive Verb** Misplaced adverb with present perfect progressive.
- e218 Past Tense Verb** Misused past verb tense (*_d* or *_ed*). Uses unspecific time or action.
- e219 Past Perfect Tense Verb** Misused past perfect tense (*had* + *_d, _ed, _en*).
- e220 Past Progressive Verb** Misused past progressive form (*was* or *were* + *_ing*).
- e221 Past Progressive Verb** Misplaced adverb with past perfect progressive.
- e222 Past Progressive Verb** Misused past progressive form connected to *while*.
- e223 Past Progressive Verb** Misused past progressive using *going to have been* + *_ing*).
- e224 Past Perfect Progressive Verb** Misused past perfect progressive (*had been* + *_ing*).
- e225 Future Tense Verb** Misused future tense (*will* or *shall* + the base form of the verb).
- e226 Future Tense Verb** Misused future tense using modal helping verbs, e.g. *could*.
- e227 Future Perfect Tense Verb** Misused future perfect tense (*will* + *have* + *_d, _ed, _en*).
- e228 Future Perfect Tense Verb** Misused future perfect tense beginning a dependent clause.
- e229 Future Progressive Verb** Misused future progressive form (*will* or *shall* + *be* + *_ing*).
- e230 Future Progressive Verb** The future progressive form for interrupted ongoing action.
- e231 Future Progressive Verb** Misused future progressive form with *is/am/are* + *going to have been* + the base form of the verb + *_ing*.
- e232 Transitive Verb** Misused transitive verb (acts upon a direct object), e.g. *gave* a gift.

(Verbs Continued)

e233 Intransitive Verb Misused intransitive verb (action or state of being without an object).

e234 Active Voice Use active voice (sentence subject performs the action of the predicate).

e235 Passive Voice Use passive voice to show objectivity.

e236 Irregular Verb Misused verb form; this is an irregular verb form.

Adverbs

e237 Adverb Misused adverb.

e238 Adverb Placement Misplaced adverb.

e239 Adverb/Adjective Confusion Adverb is misused as an adjective.

e240 Adverbial Phrase Adverbial phrase doesn't modify verb, adjective, or adverb.

e241 Adverb Order Place shorter adverbial phrase in front of the longer one.

e242 Adverb Order Place specific adverb before the longer one.

e243 Unnecessary Adverb Delete this unnecessary adverb.

e244 Repetitive Adverb Delete this repetitive adverb.

e245 Adverb Modification of Adverb This adverb doesn't modify the other adverb.

e246 Adverbial Clause Adverbial Clause doesn't modify verb, adjective, or adverb.

Subjunctive Mood

e247 Subjunctive Mood The subjunctive mood of the "to-be" verb is *were* in the past tense.

e248 Subjunctive Mood The subjunctive mood of the "to-be" verb is *be* in the present tense.

e249 Subjunctive Mood For a future wish, use the past tense or *were*.

e250 Subjunctive Mood For a past wish, use the past perfect verb tense (*had* + *_d*, *_ed*, *_en*).

e251 Subjunctive Mood For a request, use the base form of the verb.

Modifiers

e252 Modifier Misused modifier doesn't make the word(s) more specific or limit meaning.

e253 Short Comparative Modifier Use "*_er*" for a one-syllable modifier.

e254 Short Comparative Modifier Use "*_er*" or *more* (*less*) for a two-syllable modifier.

e255 Short Superlative Modifier Use "*_est*" for a one-syllable modifier for three or more comparisons.

e256 Short Superlative Modifier Use "*_est*," *most*, or *least* for a two-syllable modifier for three or more comparisons.

(Modifiers Continued)

e257 Long or *_ly* Comparative Modifier Use *more* or *less* for a three-syllable (or longer)

modifier to compare two things.

e258 Long or *_ly* Comparative Modifier Use *more* or *less* for all adverbs ending in “*_ly*” to compare two things.

e259 Long or *_ly* Superlative Modifier Use *most* (*least*) for a three-syllable or longer modifier to compare three or more things.

e260 Dangling Modifier A dangling modifier is not directly connected to the noun.

e261 Modifier Placement Place next to the word it modifies.

Prepositions

e262 Preposition The preposition is always part of a phrase and comes before its object.

e263 Preposition It is considered poor writing style to end a sentence with a preposition.

e264 Preposition Too many prepositional phrases strung together. Revise or delete.

Conjunctions

e265 Coordinating Conjunction Misused coordinating conjunction (FANBOYS).

e266 Correlative Conjunction Misused correlative conjunction (paired conjunctions).

e267 Subordinating Conjunction Misused subordinating conjunction.

Sentence Structure and Types of Sentences

Subjects and Predicates

e268 Simple Subject Misused simple subject.

e269 Complete Subject Misused complete subject.

e270 Compound Subject Misused compound subject.

e271 Sentence Subject Placement Misused declarative sentence subject placement.

e272 Sentence Subject Placement Misused imperative sentence subject.

e273 Sentence Subject Placement Misused interrogative sentence subject.

e274 Simple Predicate Misused simple predicate.

e275 Compound Predicate Misused compound predicate.

e276 Complete Predicate Misused complete predicate.

Types of Sentences

- e277 Simple Sentence** Revise to form a simple sentence.
- e278 Complete Sentence** Revise to form a complete sentence. (Voice goes up.)
- e279 Compound Sentence** Revise to form a compound sentence.
- e280 Compound Sentence** Revise to clarify the relationship between the independent clauses.
- e281 Complex Sentence** Revise to form a compound sentence.
- e282 Complex Sentence** Revise the complex sentence to define the relationships between ideas.
- e283 Compound-Complex Sentence** Revise to form a compound-complex sentence.
- e284 Declarative Sentence** Revise to form a declarative sentence.
- e285 Interrogative Sentence** Revise to form a an interrogative sentence.
- e286 Exclamatory Sentence** Revise to form a an exclamatory sentence.
- e287 Imperative Sentence** Revise to form a an imperative sentence.

Sentence Problems

- e288 Sentence Fragment** Revise by connecting the fragment to the sentence before or after.
- e289 Sentence Fragment** Revise by connecting the fragment into a complete thought.
- e290 Sentence Fragment** Revise by removing any subordinating conjunctions.
- e291 Sentence Run-on** Fix the sentence run-on, separate the run-on into two sentences.
- e292 Sentence Run-on** Fix the sentence run-on by adding a semicolon between the clauses.
- e293 Sentence Run-on** Revise with a comma-conjunction between the clauses.

Mechanics

Commas

- e294 Speaker Tag Comma** Place commas after a beginning speaker tag to the left of the quotation marks.
- e295 Speaker Tag Comma** Place commas before and after a middle speaker tag to the left of both quotation marks.
- e296 Speaker Tag Comma** Place commas before an ending speaker tag to the left of the quotation marks.
- e297 Appositive Comma** Use commas to set apart appositives.
- e298 Comma in Series** Use commas after each item in lists (except the last).
- e299 Comma in Series** Don't place a comma after the last name in a business firm.
- e300 Comma with Introductory Word** Place a comma after the introductory word.
- e301 Comma with Geography** Place a comma between related geographical place names.
- e302 Comma with Date** Use a comma to separate number dates and years.
- e303 Comma with Noun of Direct Address** Use a comma after a noun of direct address that begins a sentence.
- e304 Comma with Noun of Direct Address** Use commas before and after a noun of direct address that appears in the middle of a sentence.
- e305 Comma with Noun of Direct Address** Use a comma before a noun of direct address that ends a sentence.
- e306 Comma in Compound Sentence** Place a comma before a coordinating conjunction to join two independent clauses.
- e307 Comma in Compound Sentence** Use a comma before a subordinating conjunction.
- e308 Comma in Compound Sentence** Use a comma before the second of the paired correlative conjunctions to join two independent clauses.
- e309 Comma to Enclose Parenthetical Expression** Use a comma before and after words that interrupt the flow of the sentence. If the interruption is minimal, you may leave out the commas.
- e310 Comma to Enclose Parenthetical Expression** If the parenthetical expression begins with a conjunction, place the comma before the conjunction.
- e311 Comma to Enclose Non-restrictive Clause** Use a comma before and after non-restrictive clauses. A non-restrictive clause adds information to the attached independent clause.
- e312 Comma and Restrictive Clause** Don't use commas before and after restrictive clauses. A restrictive clause limits the meaning of the independent clause to which it is attached.
- e313 Comma and Abbreviation** Abbreviations are always preceded by a comma.
- e314 Comma and Duplicate Word** Place a comma between repeated words.
- e315 Comma to Replace Missing Word** Use a comma to replace omitted words.
- e316 Comma Splice** Use a comma prior to a conjunction to joint two independent clauses.

Capitalization

- e317 Capitalization: People and Character Name or Title** Capitalize named people/titles.
- e318 Capitalization: Place Name** Capitalize place names.
- e319 Capitalization: Name of Thing** Capitalize named things.
- e320 Capitalization: Name of Holiday** Capitalize holidays.
- e321 Capitalization: Date or Season Name** Capitalize dates, but do not capitalize seasons.
- e322 Capitalization: Title of Thing** Capitalize the words in titles.
- e323 Capitalization: Title of Course or Class** Capitalize titles of courses or classes.
- e324 Capitalization: Hyphenated Title** Capitalize both parts of hyphens of equal importance.
- e325 Capitalization: Hyphenated Title** Don't capitalize word after hyphen if both form a single word or if the second word is a participle modifying the first word.
- e326 Capitalization: Organization Name** Capitalize the names and acronyms of organizations.
- e327 Capitalization: Business Name** Capitalize the names and acronyms of businesses.
- e328 Capitalization: Language or Dialect Name** Capitalize languages and dialects.
- e329 Capitalization: People Group** Capitalize nationalities, races, and ethnic groups.
- e330 Capitalization: People Group** Don't capitalize colors, when referring to race.
- e331 Capitalization: Event Name** Capitalize the names of special events.
- e332 Capitalization: Historical Period Name** Capitalize named historical periods.
- e333 Capitalization: Time Period Name** Capitalize the names of special periods of time.
- e334 Capitalization: Quotation** Capitalize the first word in a quoted sentence.
- e335 Capitalization: Colon** Don't capitalize the first common noun in a list following a colon.
- e336 Capitalization: Colon** Don't capitalize the first common noun following a colon that begins an independent clause.
- e337 Capitalization: Colon** Capitalize words following colons beginning series of sentences.
- e338 Capitalization: Titles of People** Capitalize the title of a person when it precedes the name.
- e339 Capitalization: Titles of People** Capitalize the title of a person after the name in letters.
- e340 Capitalization: Titles of People** Capitalize the title when used as a noun of direct address.
- e341 Capitalization: Letter Salutation and Closing** Capitalize letter salutations and closings.
- e342 Capitalization: Locational Name** Capitalize specific locational names on a compass.
- e343 Capitalization: Title of Agency** Capitalize the titles of governmental agencies.

Quotation Marks

- e344 Quotation Marks** Use quotation marks to title parts of whole things.
- e345 Dialogue** When a quotation is interrupted by comments, continue with a lower case letter.
- e346 Dialogue** A change in speaker requires a new paragraph.
- e347 Direct Quotation** Use quotation marks before and after direct quotations.
- e348 Direct Quotation** Place question marks and exclamation points go inside the quotation marks, if part of the quoted sentence, but outside, if not.
- e349 Direct Quotation** Use a colon to introduce long dialogue at the beginning of sentences.
- e350 Direct Quotation** Place a colons outside the closing quotation marks.
- e351 Direct Quotation** Place a semicolon outside the closing quotation marks.
- e352 Direct Quotation** Use quotation marks and author-page # in parentheses for citations.
- e353 Direct Quotation** When asking a question about a quotation, remove the ending punctuation, add an ending quotation mark, and then follow with the question mark.
- e354 Direct Quotation** Use a colon to introduce formal quotations.
- e355 Direct Quotation** When removing words from a direct quotation, use the ellipsis (...).
- e356 Long Quotation** Quotations longer than three lines should be indented as a block text.
- e357 Indirect Quotation** Indirect quotations do not need quotation marks, but need citations.
- e358 Indirect Quotation** Indirect quotations of a general nature don't need quotation marks.
and may be used without citations.
- e359 Indirect Quotation** Indirect quotations do not need quotation marks and end with periods .
- e360 Quotations within Quotation** Use single quotation marks within double quotation marks.
- e361 Quotation Marks: Book Chapter** Use quotation marks for book chapter titles.
- e362 Quotation Marks: Article** Use quotation marks for magazine, Internet, and news articles.
- e363 Quotation Marks: Song/Video** Use quotation marks before and after song titles.
- e364 Quotation Marks: Poem** Use quotation marks for short poems.
- e365 Quotation Marks: Documents/Report** Place document titles within quotation marks.
- e366 Quotation Marks: Short Story** Place titles of short stories within quotation marks.

Underlining and Italics

- e367 Underlining/Italics: Book** Underline or italicize book titles.
- e368 Underlining/Italics: Album/CD** Underline or italicize album titles.
- e369 Underlining/Italics: Movie** Underline or italicize movie titles.
- e370 Underlining/Italics: Television Show** Underline or italicize television show titles. Episodes are placed within quotation marks.
- e371 Underlining/Italics: Game** Underline or italicize board games and video games.
- e372 Underlining/Italics: Magazine/Blog** Underline or italicize magazine or blog titles.
- e373 Underlining/Italics: Newspaper** Underline or italicize the titles of newspapers.
- e374 Underlining/Italics: Play** Underline or italicize titles of plays.
- e375 Underlining/Italics: Work of Art** Underline or italicize works of art.
- e376 Underlining/Italics: Emphasis** Underline or italicize for words that need special emphasis.

Possessives

- e377 Singular Possessive** Place an apostrophe-s for a singular possessive.
- e378 Singular Possessive** Place an apostrophe-s or just an apostrophe for a singular possessive having a /z/ sound.
- e379 Singular Possessive** Don't use an apostrophe with a possessive pronoun.
- e380 Singular Possessive** Place an apostrophe-s for a singular possessive connected to a gerund (verb forms ending in "ing" that serve as sentence subjects).
- e381 Singular Possessive** Place an apostrophe before the s for singular indefinite pronouns.
- e382 Plural Possessive** Place an apostrophe after the s for a plural possessive.
- e383 Plural Possessive** For a plural possessive of a singular word that does end in s, add "es" and then the apostrophe.
- e384 Plural Possessive** When two or more words share joint ownership, the possessive form is used only for the last word.
- e385 Plural Possessive** When two or more words are combined to show individual ownership of something, the possessive form is used for each of the words.
- e386 Plural Possessive** When two or more words are combined to show individual ownership of something, the possessive form is used for each of the words.

Other Punctuation

- e387 Period** Use periods for initials, abbreviations, and acronyms.
- e388 Acronym** Don't use periods for frequently used acronyms.
- e389 Abbreviation** Use abbreviations with ending periods to shorten a word or words.
- e390 Contraction** Place an apostrophe for the missing letter(s) in this contraction.
- e391 Semicolon** Use a semicolon to join independent clauses, phrases, or dependent clauses.

(Other Punctuation Continued)

- e392 Colon** Use a colon to show a relationship between numbers.
- e393 Colon** Use a colon to show a relationship within titles.
- e394 Colon** Use a colon after business letter salutations.
- e395 Colon** Use a colon at the end of an independent clause to explain the clause.
- e396 Exclamation Point** Use one exclamation point to show strong emotion or surprise.
- e397 Parentheses** Use parentheses following words to identify, explain, or define.
- e398 Parentheses** Don't place ending punctuation inside of parentheses.
- e399 Parentheses** Don't include important information in a parenthesis.
- e400 Dash** Use dashes before and after appositives.
- e401 Bracket** Use brackets before and after necessary background information.
- e402 Hyphen** Use hyphens to join words that are related, but are not compound words.

Conventional Spelling Rules

- e403 The *i* before *e* Spelling Rule** Usually spell *i* before *e* (*believe*), but spell *e* before *i* after a *c* (*receive*) and when the letters are pronounced as a long /a/ sound (*neighbor*). The rule only applies to the *i* and *e* spelling combination within one syllable, so the rule does not apply to words such as *sci-ence*.
- e404 The *i* before *e* Spelling Rule** Usually spell *i* before *e*, but spell *e* before *i* after a *c*.
- e405 The *i* before *e* Spelling Rule** Usually spell *i* before *e*, but spell *e* before *i* after a *c*.
- e406 The Final *y* Spelling Rule** Keep the *y* when adding a suffix if the root ends in a vowel, then a *y*.
- e407 The Silent *e* Spelling Rule** Drop the silent *e* at the end of a root when adding a suffix if that suffix begins with a vowel.
- e408 The Silent *e* Spelling Rule** Keep the silent *e* when the ending begins with a consonant, has a soft /c/ or /g/ sound-then an "ous" or "able," or if it ends in "ee", "oe", or "ye."
- e409 The Double the Consonant Spelling Rule** Double the ending consonant of a root, when adding a suffix if 1. The last syllable has the accent 2. The last syllable ends in a vowel, then a consonant 3. The suffix begins with a vowel.
- e410 The Double the Consonant Spelling Rule** Don't double the ending consonant of a root, when adding a suffix if the root ends in *k*, *w*, *x*, *y*, or *z*.
- e411 The Double the Consonant Spelling Rule** Don't double the ending consonant of a root, when adding a suffix if the root ends in a vowel team followed by a consonant.
- e412 The Ending "an" or "en" Spelling Rule** End a word with "ance", "ancy", or "ant" if the root before has a hard /c/ or /g/ sound or if the root ends with "ear" or "ure."
- e413 The Ending "an" or "en" Spelling Rule** End a word with "ence", "ency", or "ent" if the root before has a soft /c/ or /g/ sound, after "id," or if the root ends with "ere."

(Conventional Spelling Rules Continued)

- e414 The “able” or “ible” Spelling Rule** End a word with “able” if the root before has a hard /c/ or /g/ sound, after a complete root word, or after a silent *e*.
- e415 The “able” or “ible” Spelling Rule** End a word with “ible” if the root has a soft /c/ or /g/ sound, after an “ss,” or after an incomplete root word.
- e416 The Ending “ion” Spelling Rule** Spell “sion” for the final *zyun* sound or the final *shun* sound if after an *l* or *s*.
- e417 The Ending “ion” Spelling Rule** Spell “cian” for the final *shun* sound suffix to indicate a person who does the task of the root.
- e418 The Ending “ion” Spelling Rule** Spell “tion” for the final *shun* sound unless after an *l* or *s* sound or unless the suffix indicates a person.
- e419 The Plurals Spelling Rule** Add *s* onto the end of most nouns to form plurals, even those that end in *y* or those that end in a vowel, then an *o*.
- e420 The Plurals Spelling Rule** Add “es” to form plurals when a noun ends in these sounds: /s/, /x/, /z/, /ch/, or /sh/, add “es” or when words end in a consonant, then an *o*.
- e421 The Plurals Spelling Rule** Change the final *y* to *i* and add “es” to form a plural when a noun ends in a consonant, then a *y*.
- e422 The Plurals Spelling Rule** Change the “fe” or “lf” to “ves” to form this plural.
- e423 The Plurals Spelling Rule** Add “es” to form a plural of a name ending in *s*.
- e424 The Plurals Spelling Rule** Keep the plural noun the same as the singular.
- e425 The _dge Spelling Rule** Spell “_dge” for a /j/ following a short vowel to end a syllable.
- e426 The _oy Spelling Rule** Spell “oy” at the end of syllables and “oi” elsewhere.
- e427 Starting /k/ Spelling Rule** Spell *k* for the starting /k/ before *e* or *i*, but *c* before *o*, *u*, or *a*.
- e428 The /ch/ Spelling Rule** Spell “_tch” for the /ch/ after short vowels in one-syllable words.
- e429 The /k/ “ch” Spelling Rule** Spell the Greek spelling “ch” for the starting /k/.
- e430 The *l, f, s,* and *z* Spelling Rule** Double the *l, f, s,* or *z* after short vowels.
- e431 The *all, till,* and *full* Spelling Rule** Drop the *l* for syllables ending in *all, till,* and *full,* when adding on another syllable.
- e432 Ending /k/ Sound Spelling Rule** For /k/ sounds at the end of syllables, spell *c* if the syllable is unaccented, but spell “ck” if the syllable is accented.
- e433 The _ough Spelling Rule** The __ough spelling can have the short *o*, long *o*, *oo* as in *fool*, or short *u* sound. Less often, the __ough spelling can also have the /ow/ as in *cow* sound.
- e434 British-American Spelling Rules** The British often spell the /er/ as “_re” while Americans often spell the /er/ as “_er.”
- e435 British-American Spelling Rules** The British often spell the /z/ as *s*, while Americans often spell the /z/ as *z*.
- e436 Typographical Error** Spelling error.
- e437 Number** For numbers zero through nine, write out numbers; thereafter use numbers.
- e438 Close Gap** These two words should be combined.

Essay Writing Tips (formatted as Essay e-Comments)

Students:

A style manual is a writer's reference guide. This guide is designed to help you write better essays and research papers. Following are 438 writing tips to help you do just that. Each writing tip has a concise definition, explanation, and a clear example. Writing tips are organized into these categories: Essay Organization and Development (Introduction, Body, and Conclusion), Coherence, Word Choice, Sentence Variety, Writing Style, Format and Citations, Parts of Speech, Grammatical Forms, Usage, Sentence Structure, Types of Sentences, Mechanics, and Conventional Spelling Rules.

The alphanumeric listings are coded so that your teacher can easily insert these comments into Microsoft Word® documents and/or onto printed comment pages. Your teacher may ask you to use the comments to respond to writing completed by your peers.

Your teacher may not choose to comment on every writing error or issue. However, if your teacher does include a comment, do your best to revise your writing accordingly and make a mental note, or better yet an actual note, to learn the writing terms and rules to apply on future writing assignments.

Mark Pennington

Essay Organization and Development: Introduction, Body, and Conclusion

Introduction Paragraphs

e1 **Needs Another Introduction Strategy** Use at least two introduction strategies. Add a **D**efinition, **Q**uestion to be Answered, **R**eference to Something Known in Common, Quote from an **A**uthority, **P**review of Topic Sentences, **S**tartling Statement, **B**ackground, or **C**ontroversial Statement. **DQ RAPS BC**

e2 **Needs a Different Introduction Strategy** Use a variety of introduction strategies. Add a **D**efinition, **Q**uestion to be Answered, **R**eference to Something Known in Common, Quote from an **A**uthority, **P**review of Topic Sentences, **S**tartling Statement, **B**ackground, or **C**ontroversial Statement. **DQ RAPS BC**

e3 **Introducing Evidence** Don't introduce evidence in an introduction. You may preview your topic sentences, but don't include **F**act, **E**xample, **S**tatistic, **C**omparison, Quote from an **A**uthority, **L**ogic, **E**xperience, or **C**ounter-Argument/**R**efutation. Save evidence for the body paragraphs. **FE SCALE CR**

e4 **Introduction Uses Narrative Genre** An essay introduction doesn't use a *hook* or *lead*, as does a narrative introduction. An essay introduction builds reader interest and understanding of the thesis statement, but keeps a formal essay tone. So, avoid "It was a dark and stormy night."

e5 **Thesis Statement** In an essay that requires the writer to inform the reader, the thesis statement should state your specific purpose for writing. The thesis statement serves as the controlling idea throughout the essay.

e6 **Thesis Statement** In an essay that requires the writer to convince the reader, the thesis statement should state your point of view. The thesis statement serves as the argument or claim to be proved throughout the essay.

e7 **Thesis Statement does not respond to writing prompt.** Re-read the writing prompt and dissect according to the WHO (the audience and role of the writer), the WHAT (the context of the writing topic), the HOW (the resource text title and author), and the DO (the key writing direction word).

e8 **Thesis Statement does not state the purpose of the essay.** Dissect the writing prompt, focusing on the WHAT (the context of the writing topic), the HOW (the resource text title and author), and the DO (the key writing direction word) to specifically state the purpose of your essay.

e9 **Thesis Statement does not state the point of view of the essay.** Dissect the writing prompt, focusing on to the WHO (the audience and role of the writer), the HOW (the resource text title and author), and the DO (the key writing direction word) to clearly state your specific point of view.

e10 **Thesis Statement is too general.** Get more specific in your thesis statement.
Example: There were lots of causes to the Civil War. Revision: Although many issues contributed to problems between the North and the South, the main cause of the Civil War was slavery.

e11 **Thesis Statement is too specific.** Your thesis statement needs to be a bit broader to be able to respond to the demands of the writing prompt. A good thesis statement is like an umbrella-it must cover the whole subject to be effective. Save the specificity for the body paragraphs.

e12 **Thesis Statement is inconsequential.** The thesis statement must state a purpose or point of view that can be meaningfully developed in the essay.
Example: People in France really enjoy their cheese. Revision: The French especially enjoy four types of cheeses.

e13 **Thesis Statement cannot be argued.** An essay designed to convince a reader of the author's specific point of view must provide a thesis statement that is arguable.
Example: Blue is the best color. Revision: Blue is the best color to complement a bright white background.

e14 **Split Thesis Statement** Don't write a split (divided) thesis. A split thesis includes two purposes or two points of view. Focus on only one purpose or point of view throughout the essay. It may be necessary to reference or refute another purpose or point of view in the body paragraphs or conclusion.

e15 **Thesis Statement responds to only part of the writing prompt.** Dissect the writing prompt according to the WHO (the audience and role of the writer), the WHAT (the context of the writing topic), the HOW (the resource text title and author), and the DO (the key writing direction word) and include each part.

e16 **References to Own Writing** Don't include references to your own writing in the thesis statement. **Examples:** In this essay... The following paragraphs... I will prove that... The evidence will suggest that... The purpose of this essay... My point of view is that... In my opinion...

Body Paragraphs: Argument, Analysis, Evidence

e17 **Needs Topic Sentence** If a topic sentence is not stated, it must be clearly implied (suggested). This paragraph states details, but not the main idea. Most topic sentences are placed as the first sentences in body paragraphs.

e18 **Needs Concluding Statement** Not every body paragraph requires a concluding statement; however, this lengthy paragraph does to re-connect your reader to the topic sentence and provide an effective transition to the next paragraph.

e19 **Delete Concluding Statement** Not every body paragraph requires a concluding statement. This concluding statement is redundant (repetitive) and unnecessary. It is not needed to transition to the next paragraph.

e20 **Major Details Not of Same Content Category** Major details used to support the main idea of the topic sentence need to be of the same content category.

Example: Topic Sentence Main Idea=*weather* Major Details=*rain, nice*
Revisions: Topic Sentence Main Idea=*weather* Major Details=*rain, snow* (not *nice*)

e21 **Major Details Not of Same Hierarchical Importance** Major details used to support the main idea of the topic sentence need to be of the same hierarchical importance. **Example:** Topic Sentence: Democracy is essential. Major Details=*equality, it's fun to vote* Revision: *equality, protection of liberties*

e22 **Minor detail does not relate to major detail.** This minor detail is either off topic or doesn't directly relate to the major detail it intends to support.

e23 **Sequence Problem** This sentence is improperly placed and so confuses the reader. Re-read the paragraph to determine proper placement or delete if it does not fit in to the flow of the paragraph. Common idea sequences include the following: general to specific, chronological order, cause to effect.

e24 **Inadequate Development** The main idea of the topic sentence requires further evidence to adequately inform or convince the reader. Add evidence such as Fact, Example, Statistic, Comparison, Quote from an Authority, Logic, Experience, or Counter-Argument/Refutation. **FE SCALE CR**

e25 **Irrelevant** The point may be valid on its own but it does not specifically address the purpose or point of view of the essay. Either delete or revise to clarify how it is meaningfully and appropriately related.

e26 **Add Support Evidence** More evidence is needed to adequately support your topic sentence. Add evidence in major detail or minor detail sentences such as Fact, Example, Statistic, Comparison, Quote from an Authority, Logic, Experience, or Counter-Argument/Refutation. **FE SCALE CR**

e27 **Support Evidence Variety** The main idea of the topic sentence would be better explained or proven with greater variety of evidence. Add additional evidence such as Fact, Example, Statistic, Comparison, Quote from an Authority, Logic, Experience, or Counter-Argument/Refutation. **FE SCALE CR**

e28 **Define Terms or Special Words** This term or word is not commonly understood or is used in a special way and so should be defined to be courteous to the reader. Italicize or underline the term or word. The definition can be parenthetical or stand on its own. **Example:** The *zeitgeist* (spirit of the times)...

e29 **Get more specific.** The support evidence is too general. Add more specific evidence by including Fact, Example, Statistic, Comparison, Quote from an Authority, Logic, Experience, or Counter-Argument/Refutation. **FE SCALE CR**

e30 **Off Topic** Focus is off the controlling idea. The point is off topic and should be deleted or revised to clarify how it is on topic.

e31 **Synonym Errors** A term has been substituted for another, yet the terms are not same. **Example:** The undemocratic government had only one political party—a true dictatorship. Explanation: The writer substitutes *dictatorship* for *undemocratic*; yet not all undemocratic governments are dictatorships.

e32 **Non Sequitur Errors** The conclusion cannot be reached from the facts presented. **Example:** If the sky is blue, and blue is the color of the ocean; then the sky must be made of ocean water. Explanation: The conclusion that “the sky must be made of ocean water” does not follow logically from the facts presented.

e33 **Red Herring Errors** An unconnected reference distracts the reader from the argument. **Example:** Poverty is the most important problem; however, the world has always had poor people. Explanation: The second clause attempts to distract the reader from the issue of poverty as the most important problem.

e34 **Unsupported Generalization Errors** A generalization has been made from a fact without justification. **Example:** Bob and Ara are blondes. They both excel at sports. All blondes excel at sports. Explanation: The fact that two blondes are good at sports does not justify the generalization for *all* blondes.

e35 **Poisoning the Well Errors** The argument is weakened by a criticism in the argument itself. **Example:** The president proposes lowering taxes to encourage spending, even though economists label the plan as “unworkable.” Explanation: The president’s proposal is weakened by the economists’ comment.

e36 **Cause and Effect Errors** No necessary cause-effect relationship has been established. **Example:** That cough syrup commercial aired again. I coughed again. Cough syrup commercials make me cough. Explanation: Coughing after a commercial is a matter of coincidence. Commercials do not cause coughing.

e37 **Begging the Question Errors** Something unproven has been assumed to be true in order to support the argument. **Example:** No one likes the poor musicianship of country music. Explanation: The statement assumes that country music has poor musicians in order to support the argument.

e38 **Either-Or Errors** A false choice has been made between two ideas or issues that ignores other options. **Example:** Either you support the president, or you are not a true American. Explanation: The statement ignores other options that true Americans might choose.

e39 **Comparison Errors** Similarities or differences have been made between two unrelated ideas or issues. **Example:** The price of Chinese tea has increased and so has the price of American gasoline. Explanation: The price of tea and gas are unrelated issues and cannot be compared.

e40 **Questionable Authority Errors** A source has been cited that does not have established expertise. **Examples:** Experts say the world will run out of oil in 9 years, and a Harvard scientist claims that love at first sight is possible. Explanation: “Experts” are unnamed, and a scientist is not an expert in love.

e41 **Contradiction Errors** This statement contradicts what has already been stated in the argument. **Example:** Skateboarding is the safest sport. Skateboarding injuries result in more hospital visits than any other sport. Explanation: Skateboard injuries contradict the claim that the sport is safe.

e42 **Inconsistency Errors** One part of the argument does not agree with or is inconsistent with another part. **Example:** Children should wear helmets while riding bicycles, but not while in-line skating. Explanation: The assertion that one activity should require helmets, but not the other, is inconsistent.

e43 **Omission Errors** Necessary information is missing in the argument.

Example: The Folsom High School Band has the best band in the city. Explanation: The fact that the Folsom High School Band is the only band in the city has been omitted.

e44 **Oversimplification Errors** A complicated idea or issue has been oversimplified.

Example: Baseball is a simple game of pitching, running, hitting, and fielding.

Explanation: This statement ignores the complicated components such as baseball strategy, substitutions, and statistical probability.

e45 **Sampling Errors** This conclusion cannot be made due to insufficient sample size or an unreliable sample group. **Example:** Everyone should floss daily. Three out of four dentists agree. Explanation: Only four dentists were surveyed and some may be paid by dental floss companies to promote their product.

Conclusion Paragraphs

e46 **Needs Thesis Re-statement** Essay conclusions traditionally begin with a thesis re-statement. Consider using a different grammatical sentence opener or opening transition word to avoid repetition.

e47 **Needs Another Conclusion Strategy** Use at least two conclusion strategies. Add a Generalization, Question for Further Study, Statement of Significance, Application, Argument Limitations, Emphasis of Key Point, Summary Statement, or Call to Action. **GQ SALE SC**

e48 **Needs a Different Conclusion Strategy** Use a variety of conclusion strategies. Add a Generalization, Question for Further Study, Statement of Significance, Application, Argument Limitations, Emphasis of Key Point, Summary Statement, or Call to Action. **GQ SALE SC**

e49 **Needs a Finished Feeling** A conclusion needs to provide a finished feeling for the reader. The conclusion must satisfy the reader that the purpose has been achieved or point of view has been convincingly argued.

Coherence, Word Choice, Sentence Variety, and Writing Style

Coherence

e50 **Not Clear** Meaning is unclear. Lack of clarity may be due to syntax (order of words) or lack of adequate support.

e51 **Needs Definition Transition** Use one of the following transition words or phrases to connect to the sentence before or after: *refers to, in other words, consists of, is equal to, means*

e52 **Needs Example Transition** Use one of the following transition words or phrases to connect to the sentence before or after: *for example, for instance, such as, is like, including, to illustrate*

e53 **Needs Addition Transition** Use one of the following transition words or phrases to connect to the sentence before or after: *also, another, in addition, furthermore, moreover*

e54 **Needs Sequence Transition** Use one of the following transition words or phrases to connect to the sentence before or after: *first, second, later, next, before, for one, for another, previously, then, finally, following, since, now*

e55 **Needs Analysis Transition** Use one of the following transition words or phrases to connect to the sentence before or after: *consider, this means, examine, look at*

e56 **Needs Comparison Transition** Use one of the following transition words or phrases to connect to the sentence before or after: *similarly, in the same way, just like, likewise, in comparison*

e57 **Needs Contrast Transition** Use one of the following transition words or phrases to connect to the sentence before or after: *similarly, in the same way, just like, likewise, in comparison*

e58 **Needs Cause-Effect Transition** Use one of the following transition words or phrases to connect to the sentence before or after: *because, for, therefore, hence, as a result, consequently, due to, thus, so, this led to*

e59 **Needs Conclusion Transition** Use one of the following transition words or phrases to connect to the sentence before or after: *in conclusion, to conclude, as one can see, as a result, in summary, for these reasons*

e60 **Awkward** The sentence construction is awkward and requires revision.

e61 **Diction** Word choice is incorrect, unclear, or inappropriate. Substitute a more precise word or revise the sentence and explain what you mean to say.

e62 **Inconsistent Voice** The unique personality of the writing style has shifted and is inconsistent with the writing found throughout the essay.

e63 **Inconsistent Tone** The attitude of the writer has shifted and is inconsistent with the writing found throughout the essay. **Example:** The tone of writing changes from a restrained approach to a passionate approach of argumentation in a persuasive essay.

Word Choice

e64 **Wrong Word** The wrong word is used here. The word may be denotatively (as it is exactly defined) incorrect, connotatively (as the word is commonly understood) incorrect, or a secondary meaning. Substitute a more precise word or revise the sentence and explain what you mean to say.

e65 **Reversal** Two words have been reversed. **Example:** He was a strong boy in his convictions. Revision: He was a boy, strong in his convictions.

e66 **Define this term.** This term or word is not commonly understood or is used in a special way and so should be defined to be courteous to the reader. Italicize or underline the term or word. The definition can be parenthetical or stand on its own.

Example: The *zeitgeist* (spirit of the times)...

e67 **Delete this word(s).** This word, phrase, clause, or sentence is unnecessary to the meaning of the paragraph. Brevity (keeping things short and to the point) improves writing style.

e68 **Overused Word(s)** This word or phrase has been used excessively. Use a pronoun, synonym, or restatement instead of this word. Or simply revise the sentence to omit.

e69 **Syntax** Syntax refers to how words are arranged in a sentence and the word patterns that a writer uses. Revise the sentence structure to add syntactical variety or to improve clarity of meaning.

Sentence Variety

e70 **Word Placement** English emphasizes words placed at the beginnings and ends of sentences. Revise accordingly. **Example:** The lady was angry, and walked out of the room. Revision: Angry, the lady walked out of the room. **Example:** His commitment was lacking. Revision: He lacked commitment.

e71 **Grammatical Sentence Openers** No more than 50% of sentences should be constructed in the subject-verb-complement sentence pattern. Avoid writing more than two of the same patterns back-to-back. Revising sentences with different grammatical sentence openers improves sentence variety.

e72 **Sentence Length** Avoid writing two long sentences (complex or compound-complex sentences) or two short sentences back-to-back.

Writing Style

e73 **Redundant** Avoid repeating ideas, words or phrases, and cited sources. Redundancy suggests padding or over-reliance on single ideas of sources of information.

e74 **Needs Parallel Structure** Repeat key words or grammatical structures to create a memorable writing rhythm. These parallel structures can improve reader comprehension. **Example:** We cannot dedicate... We cannot consecrate... We cannot hallow this ground (Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address").

e75 **Delete Slang** Essays are formal writing, so slang is not permitted. **Example:** The kids studied hard for their exams. Revision: The children studied hard for their exams.

e76 **Delete Poetic Device** Essays are formal writing, so poetic devices are not permitted. **Example:** The cold passed reluctantly from the earth... (Crane's *Red Badge of Courage*) Revision: The weather warmed.

e77 **Delete Figure of Speech** Essays are formal writing, so figures of speech are not permitted. **Example:** Jean let the cat out of the bag about the plot of the upcoming episode. Revision: Jean revealed the plot of the upcoming episode.

e78 **Revise Rhetorical Question** Avoid rhetorical questions in essays. A rhetorical question is a question needing no response because the answer is in the question itself. **Example:** Does anyone really think we should start over?

e79 **Revise Informal Writing** Essays are formal writing, so informal, conversational writing style is not permitted. **Example:** FYI... Ron and Hermione have been going out for a year. Revision: Ron and Hermione have been dating for a year.

e80 **Revise: Too Many "to-be verbs"** Consider limiting use of *is, am, are, was, were, be, being, been* to one per paragraph. To replace "to be verbs": 1. Substitute a more active verb 2. Begin the sentence with another word from the sentence 3. Change one of the words in the sentence into a verb form.

e81 **Revise: Too Many Prepositional Phrase Strings** Avoid using more than two prepositional phrases back-to-back. **Example:** The rabbit ran under the fence, through the garden, to the cabbage patch. Revision: The rabbit ran under the fence and into the garden. It stopped at the cabbage patch.

e82 **Revise Parenthetical Remarks** Avoid using parenthetical remarks in essays. Try using commas for appositives or a subordinate clause to include the information. **Example:** He continued to try (the man in red had failed twice). Revision: He continued to try, although the man in red had failed twice.

e83 **Don't start sentences with coordinating conjunctions.** Avoid beginning sentences with the coordinating conjunctions (F.A.N.B.O.Y.S.-*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*) unless you finish the thought. Otherwise, fragments often result.

e84 **Don't split infinitives.** Infinitives consist of “to” plus the base form of the verb and serve as adjectives, adverbs, or nouns. Don't add in a word(s) between the “to” and base form of the verb in formal essay writing. **Example:** To quickly leave made sense. Revision: To leave quickly made sense.

e85 **Don't end sentences with prepositions.** A preposition always appears at the beginning of a prepositional phrase and connects in time, space, relationship, or position to its object. A preposition can't be used by itself in formal essay writing. **Example:** Don't ever give up. Revision: Always persevere.

e86 **Revise Double Negative** Avoid using double negatives to indicate a positive in formal essay writing as this construction tends to confuse the reader. **Example:** Do not ever fail to use soap to wash dishes. Revision: Always use soap to wash dishes.

e87 **Using not as Denial** Avoid using the word *not* to deny a positive assertion. **Example:** She was not frequently on time to class. Revision: She was frequently late to class.

e88 **Revise Passive Voice** Avoid using passive voice, in which the subject of the sentence receives the action of the predicate. Instead, revise to active voice, in which the subject of the sentence does the action. **Example:** The pen was given to the teacher by Jim. Revision: Jim gave the pen to the teacher.

e89 **Excessively Wordy** Concise writing is better understood than wordy writing. Eliminate unnecessary words at the beginning of sentences. **Examples:** It is... There is... There are... This... I think... I believe... In my opinion.

e90 **Excessively Wordy** Concise writing is better understood than wordy writing. Eliminate “who,” “which,” and “that” if possible. **Example:** oatmeal which was mushy Revision: mushy oatmeal **Example:** The children, who talked loudly, didn't listen. Revision: Talking loudly, the children didn't listen. **Example:** She was acting like a child. Revision: She acted childishly.

e91 **Excessively Wordy** Concise writing is better understood than wordy writing. Replace wordy and weak verb forms with strong verbs. **Example:** She was acting like a child. Revision: She acted childishly.

e92 **Excessively Wordy** Concise writing is better understood than wordy writing. Replace “_tion” and “_sion” noun constructions with strong verbs. **Example:** He turned in the application for the job. Revision: He applied for the job.

e93 **Excessively Wordy** Concise writing is better understood than wordy writing. Replace prepositional phrases with modifiers when possible. **Example:** The principal of the school supervised the painting of the gym. Revision: The school principal supervised painting the gym.

e94 **Excessively Wordy** Concise writing is better understood than wordy writing. Combine two sentences with a colon to indicate their relationship. **Example:** The teacher discussed two subjects. The subjects were reading and writing. Revision: The teacher discussed these subjects: reading and writing.

e95 **Excessively Wordy** Concise writing is better understood than wordy writing. Combine two sentences into one to form a complex, compound, or compound-complex sentence. **Example:** She was not happy. This was a result of her being lonely. Revision: Because she was lonely, she was not happy.

e96 **Omit Needless Words** Delete expressions that do not add meaning to a sentence, especially those that include the word *that*. **Examples:** owing to the fact that, despite (in spite of) the fact that, call your attention to the fact that, the fact that.

e97 **Omit Needless Words** Delete expressions that do not add meaning to a sentence, especially those that include the phrases: *who is* and *which is*. **Examples:** My wife, who is a gourmet cook, used cumin, which is my favorite spice. Revision: My wife, a gourmet cook, used cumin, my favorite spice.

e98 **Needs 3rd Person** Compose essays in the third person, not in first or second person voice. Focus on the subject, not the author-reader conversation. Don't use first person pronouns: *I, me, my, mine, myself, we, us, our, ours, ourselves* or second person pronouns: *you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves*

e99 **Overstated Idea** The idea or evidence is exaggerated or overstated. Understatement and statements as to the limitations of an argument or conclusion are more convincing to your reader.

e100 **No Abbreviations** Formal essays do not permit abbreviations. However, common acronyms are permissible. **Examples:** The U.A.R. supplied an astronaut for the new N.A.S.A. space launch. Revision: The United Arab Emirates supplied an astronaut for the new N.A.S.A. space launch.

e101 **No Contractions** Formal essays do not permit contractions. **Examples:** They shouldn't talk when they don't understand the subject. Revision: They should not talk when they do not understand the subject.

Format and Citations

e102 **Needs New Paragraph** New paragraphs are required for new ideas or new dialogue.

e103 **Paragraph Format** Indent one tab, if word processing or one inch, if writing. Don't skip lines between paragraphs, unless your teacher specifies block paragraph style.

e104 **Heading Format** Heading (Left, Top, Four Lines): John Doe--Mr. Pennington--English-language Arts--7 March, 2009 Then, have two double spaces before indenting your first paragraph one Tab space.

e106 **Transpose** Words, phrases, or clauses need to be in reverse order.

e105 **Center Title** Center the title.

e106 **Transpose** Words, phrases, or clauses need to be in reverse order.

e107 **Margin Format** Set one inch margins on the top, bottom, left, and right.

e108 **Font** Use a non-cursive, un-bolded, commonly-used font in 12 point size.

e109 **Line Spacing** Double spaced, unless your teacher specifies otherwise.

e110 **Neatness** Neatness reflects work ethic. Sloppy print copy, folded papers, or ink smudges do not present a positive reflection of your work.

e111 **Editing** Spell check and grammar check are essential. Proofreading for typographical errors, incorrect homonyms, and missing components is necessary.

e112 **Needs Citation** You need to cite your source for this section.

e113 **MLA Works Cited (Print Book)** Pennington, Mark. *Teaching Essay Strategies*. El Dorado Hills, CA: Pennington Publishing, 2010. 212-213. Print.
In-Text Citation: (Pennington 212-213)

e114 **MLA Works Cited (Print Encyclopedia)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Encyclopedia of Writing*. 1st ed. 1. El Dorado Hills, CA: Pennington Publishing, 2010. Print. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 212-213)

e115 **MLA Works Cited (Print Journal)** Pennington, M. "Works Cited." *Teaching Essay Strategies*. 1.1 (2010): 212-213. Print. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 212-213)

e116 **MLA Works Cited (Print Magazine)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Teaching Essay Strategies*. 2010: 212-213. Print. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 212-213)

e117 **MLA Works Cited (Print Newspaper)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *London Bee* 5 May 2011: B5. Print. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington B5)

e118 **MLA Works Cited (Print Textbook or Anthology)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Teaching Essay Strategies*. Ed. Jane Doe. El Dorado Hills: Pennington Publishing, 2010. Print. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 212-213)

e119 **MLA Works Cited (Print Letter)** Pennington, Mark. "To Jane Doe." 5 May 2011. El Dorado Hills, CA: 2011. Print. Letter. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington)

e120 **MLA Works Cited (Print Document)** Pennington, Mark. United States. *Civil Air Patrol*. District of Columbia: Department of Defense, 2011. Print. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 212-213)

e121 **MLA Works Cited (e-Book)** Pennington, Mark. *Teaching Essay Strategies*. El Dorado Hills, CA: Pennington Publishing, 2010. 212-213. e-Book. < <http://www.penningtonpublishing.com> >. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 212-213)

e122 **MLA Works Cited (Online Journal)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Writing Journal* 3.2 (2011): 1-3. Web. 26 Mar 2011. < <http://www.penningtonpublishing.com> >. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 1-3)

e123 **MLA Works Cited (Online Magazine)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Teaching Essay Strategies* 5 May 2011: 22-26. Web. 26 Mar 2011. < <http://www.penningtonpublishing.com> >. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 22-26)

e124 **MLA Works Cited (Online Encyclopedia)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Encyclopedia of Writing*. 2. 3. El Dorado Hills, CA: Pennington Publishing, 2011. Web. < <http://www.penningtonpublishing.com> >. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 111-113)

e125 **MLA Works Cited (Web Document)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Teaching Essay Strategies*. Pennington Publishing, 5 May 2011. Web. 26 Mar 2011. < <http://www.penningtonpublishing.com> >. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington)

e126 **MLA Works Cited (Web-based Videos or Images)** "Sunset in Cancun." *Tropical Paradises*. Web. 26 Mar 2011. < <http://www.penningtonpublishing.com> >. **In-Text Citation:** ("Sunset in Cancun")

e127 **MLA Works Cited (Blog)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Pennington Publishing*. Pennington Publishing, 5 May 2011. Web. 26 Mar 2011. <<http://www.penningtonpublishing.com/blog>>. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington)

e128 **MLA Works Cited (Podcast)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Writing Podcasts*. Pennington Publishing, 5 May 2011. Web. 26 Mar 2011. <<http://www.penningtonpublishing.com>>. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington)

e129 **MLA Works Cited (E-Mail)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *Message to Jane Doe*. 5 May 2011. E-mail. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington)

e130 **MLA Works Cited (Online Forum)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." 5 May 2011. *Online Posting to Writing Forum*. Web. 26 Mar 2011. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington)

e131 **MLA Works Cited (Online Government Document)** Pennington, Mark. United States. *Civil Air Patrol*. District of Columbia: Department of Defense, 2011. Web. 26 Mar 2011. <<http://www.departmentofdefense.gov>>. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 22-26)

e132 **MLA Works Cited (Radio or Television)** "Works Cited." *Teaching Essay Strategies*. Pennington Broadcasting Company: KTES, El Dorado Hills, 5 May 2011. Radio. 26 Mar 2011. **In-Text Citation:** ("Works Cited")

e133 **MLA Works Cited (Film or Recording)** Pennington, Mark, Dir. *Teaching Essay Strategies*. Dir. Mark Pennington. Perf. Mickey, Moose. *Disunited Artists*: 2011, Film. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington 1-3)

e134 **MLA Works Cited (Online Interview)** Pennington, Mark. *Writing Works*. Interview by Oprah Walters. 5 May 2011. Web. 26 Mar 2011. <<http://www.penningtonpublishing.com/blog>>. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington)

e135 **MLA Works Cited (Lecture)** Pennington, Mark. "Works Cited." *English-language Arts Class*. El Dorado Hills Unified School District. El Dorado High School, El Dorado Hills. 5 May 2011. Lecture. **In-Text Citation:** (Pennington)

Parts of Speech, Grammatical Forms, Usage

Nouns

€136 **Common Noun** A common noun is an idea, person, place, or thing. A common noun is capitalized only at the start of a sentence. **Examples:** It takes *self-control* (idea) for a *teenager* (person) to drive to *school* (place) in a *sports car* (thing).

€137 **Proper Noun** A proper noun is a capitalized name of a person, place, or thing. It can be a single word, a group of words (with or without abbreviations), or a hyphenated word. **Examples:** *Josh* was honored (person) at *U.S. Memorial Auditorium* (place) with the *Smith-Lee Award* (thing).

€138 **Compound Noun** A compound noun is usually formed by two or more words and represents a single noun. A compound noun can be a hyphenated word. **Examples:** The *congressman* served in the *House of Representatives* for a *two-year* term.

€139 **Collective Noun** A collective noun is a common noun that refers to a group of people, animals, or things. Collective nouns usually take singular verbs, since each represents a group. **Example:** The cattle *herd* seems restless.

€140 **Concrete Noun** A concrete noun can be perceived by the senses. **Examples:** My copy of the *Sacramento Bee* is on the *desk*.

€141 **Abstract Noun** An abstract noun cannot be perceived by the senses. **Examples:** *Judaism* has been described as a religion of *peace* and *love*.

€142 **Noun Phrase** A noun phrase consists of a proper or common noun with any related words. **Examples:** *The calm and decisive prince* served his subjects well.

€143 **Noun Clause** The noun clause is a dependent clause that usually begins with *if*, *how*, *however*, *that*, the “wh” words: *what*, *when*, *where*, *which*, *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *why*, or the “wh”-ever words: *whatever*, *whenever*, *wherever*, *whichever*, *who(m)ever*. **Example:** *If I knew*, I would tell.

€144 **Gerund** A gerund is an _____ *ing* verb that is used as a noun. **Examples:** *Driving* has become a necessary skill these days.

€145 **Gerund Phrase** A gerund phrase is an _____ *ing* verb, connected to related words, and is used as a noun. **Examples:** *Driving a car* has become a necessary skill these days.

Pronouns

e146 **Pronoun** A pronoun is a word used in place of a proper noun or common noun. Pronouns serve in the subject case (*I*) and in the object case (*me*).

Examples: This is *she*. Is it *her* basket?

e147 **Pronoun (Point of View)** Pronouns are used in the first person, second person, or third person points of view to take the place of a noun or another pronoun.

Examples: *I* gave *you* *his* present.

e148 **Subject (Nominative) Case Pronoun** A singular subject case pronoun (*I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, and *it*) or a plural subject case pronoun (*we*, *you*, and *they*) can serve as the subject of the sentence. **Examples:** *She* attended the concert. *We* did too.

e149 **Subject (Nominative) Case Pronoun** A subject case pronoun (*I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, *you*, and *they*) can serve as a predicate nominative to identify a subject following a “to be” verb (*is*, *am*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *be*, *being*, *been*). **Example:** The man who got into trouble is *he*.

e150 **Subject (Nominative) Case Pronoun** A subject case pronoun (*I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, *you*, and *they*) can serve as an appositive. The appositive pronouns are placed after *than* or *as* to form a comparison. **Examples:** Marty is smarter than *he*. Tom is as tired as *I*.

e151 **Subject (Nominative) Case Pronoun** A subject case pronoun (*I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, *you*, and *they*) is placed last in compound subjects. **Example:** John and *I* play video games.

e152 **Object Case Pronoun** A singular object case pronoun (*me*, *you*, *him*, *her*, *it*) or a plural object case pronoun (*us*, *you*, and *them*) can serve as a direct object, answering What? or Who? in response to the verb. **Example:** She hit *him*.

e153 **Object Case Pronoun** An object case pronoun (*me*, *you*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *us*, *you*, and *them*) can serve as an indirect object, answering For What? or For Whom? in response to the verb and is usually placed before the direct object in a sentence. **Example:** He gave *her* a pen.

e154 **Objective Case Pronoun** An object case pronoun (*me*, *you*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *us*, *you*, and *them*) can serve as an object of a prepositional phrase. **Example:** They smiled at *me*.

e155 **Objective Case Pronoun** An object case pronoun (*me*, *you*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *us*, *you*, and *them*) can serve as an object connected to an *infinitive* (*to* + the base form of a verb). **Example:** She wants *to give them* money.

e156 **Objective Case Pronoun** An object case pronoun (*me, you, him, her, it, us, you,* and *them*) is placed last in compound objects. **Example:** The friend gave Kathy and *us* a bag of chips.

e157 **Pronoun Antecedent** An antecedent is the word, phrase, or clause to which a pronoun refers. Avoid problems by placing pronouns close to their references or use synonyms. **Examples:** He gave the dog his bone. Revision: He gave Fido the dog bone.

e158 **Pronoun Antecedent** An antecedent is the word, phrase, or clause to which a pronoun refers. Avoid problems by making antecedents specific. **Examples:** When they asked for their help, they said, “Yes.” Revision: When they asked for Lee and Bob’s help, they said, “Yes.”

e159 **Pronoun Antecedent** An antecedent is the word, phrase, or clause to which a pronoun refers. Avoid using a pronoun that refers to the object of a preposition. **Examples:** In Twain’s *Tom Sawyer*, he uses political humor. Revision: Twain uses political humor in *Tom Sawyer*.

e160 **Pronoun Antecedent** An antecedent is the word, phrase, or clause to which a pronoun refers. When an antecedent is uncountable, use a singular pronoun to refer to it. **Examples:** All of the salt fell out of *their* bag. Revision: All of the salt fell out of *its* bag.

e161 **Pronoun Antecedent** An antecedent is the word, phrase, or clause to which a pronoun refers. Make sure the pronouns *this, that, these,* and *those* refer to what is intended. **Examples:** He made an egg, took out milk, and put *this* on toast. Revision: Substitute *the egg* for *this*.

e162 **Pronoun Antecedent** An antecedent is the word, phrase, or clause to which a pronoun refers. Don’t have a pronoun refer to a possessive antecedent. **Examples:** In San Diego’s zoo, *they* treat *their* animals well. Revision: San Diego Zoo trainers treat their animals well.

e163 **Pronoun Antecedent** The pronoun *who* serves as the subject. The pronoun *whom* is in the object case and takes the place of the direct object, the indirect object of the verb, or the object of the preposition. **Examples:** For who is this candy? Revision: For whom is this candy?

e164 **Relative Pronoun** A relative pronoun starts an adjective clause. These are the relative pronouns: *that, which, who, whom,* and *whose*. The pronoun *that* can refer to people or things. Use *which* for specific things. Use *who, whom,* and *whose* for people, animals, and characters.

e165 **Pronoun Re-statement** Don’t restate the subject with a pronoun in the same sentence. **Examples:** That dog, which is friendly, *he* was easy to train. Revision: That dog, who is friendly, was easy to train.

e166 **Demonstrative Pronoun** The pronouns *this* and *these* refer to nouns or pronouns close to the writer, while *that* and *those* refer to nouns or pronouns away from the writer. **Examples:** This pen and these pencils here are better than that pen and those pencils over there.

e167 **Indefinite Singular Pronoun** An indefinite singular pronoun takes a singular verb. **Examples:** *Anybody, Anyone, Anything, Each, Either, Everybody, Everyone, Everything, Neither, Nobody, Nothing, No one, One, Somebody, Someone, Something* is nice.

e168 **Indefinite Plural Pronoun** An indefinite plural pronoun takes a plural verb. **Examples:** *Both, Few, Many, Several* are nice.

e169 **Indefinite Number Pronoun** An indefinite number pronoun such as the following: *all, any, half, more, most, none, other,* and *some* may be singular or plural depending upon the surrounding word clues. **Examples:** *None of this* is good. *More of these answers* are needed.

e170 **Gender Pronoun** Use the plural possessive pronoun their, if gender (either male or female) is unknown or if the content applies to both genders. **Examples:** Everyone needs *his* rest. Revision: All need their rest.

e171 **1st Person Pronoun** Don't use 1st person singular pronouns (*I, me, my, myself*) and plural pronouns (*we, us, our, ours, ourselves*) in formal essays. Essays focus on the subject, not the connection to the writer. **Examples:** *I* think it is wrong. Revision: It is wrong.

e172 **2nd Person Pronoun** Don't use 2nd person singular pronouns (*you, your, yours, yourself*) and plural pronouns (*you, your, yours, yourselves*) in formal essays. Essays focus on the subject, not the reader relationship. **Examples:** *You* are wrong. Revision: That is wrong.

e173 **3rd Person Pronoun** Use 3rd person singular pronouns (*he, she, it, him, her, himself, herself*) and plural pronouns (*they, them, their, theirs, themselves*) in formal essays. Use plural forms to make generalizations. **Example:** *They* believe it *themselves*.

e174 **1st Person Possessive Pronoun** The first person singular and plural possessive pronouns are *my* and *mine*, if used without a noun. If used without a noun, they are *mine* and *ours*. **Examples:** He is our friend, but my best friend. That cake is mine, not ours.

e175 **2nd Person Possessive Pronoun** Second person singular and possessive pronouns are *your* before a noun and *yours* without a noun. Don't use second person pronouns in formal essays, except in quotations. **Examples:** That is *your* pencil, and the pen is also *yours*.

e176 **3rd Person Possessive Pronoun** The third person singular and plural possessive pronouns are *his*, *her*, *its* and *their* if used before a noun and *his*, *hers*, and *theirs* if used without a noun. Notice that *its* must be connected to a noun. **Examples:** Is it *his* essay or *hers*?

e177 **Possessive Pronoun Gerund Phrase** Possessive pronouns can connect to a *gerund* (a verb forms ending in “_ing” that serve as a sentence subject). **Examples:** *His* cooking is not the best. *Their* cooking is not the best either. Notice that gerund phrases are single subjects.

e178 **Reflexive Pronoun** Reflexive pronouns end in “self” or “selves” and refer to the subject of the sentence. These pronouns are necessary to the meaning of the sentence: *myself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, and *themselves*. **Example:** He hurt *himself*.

e179 **Reflexive Pronoun** Reflexive pronouns must refer to the subject of the sentence. Don't use a reflexive pronoun as the object of a prepositional phrase without reference to the sentence subject. **Examples:** It was done by *yourself*. Revision: You did it by *yourself*.

e180 **Reflexive Pronoun** Reflexive pronouns must refer to the subject of the sentence. Don't use a reflexive pronoun as the sentence subject. **Examples:** Joe and *myself* are playing cards. Revision: Joe and I are playing cards.

e181 **Reflexive Pronoun** Don't use reflexive pronouns as possessives or *his* or *their* with “self” or “selves” as the second syllable. **Examples:** The map is *himselves*, but let him use it *hisself*. Revision: The map is *his*, but let him use it *himself*.

e182 **Intensive Pronoun** Intensive pronouns (*myself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, and *themselves*) emphasize a noun or pronoun. They are unnecessary to the meaning of the sentence. **Example:** He *himself* won the game.

e183 **Intensive Pronoun** Don't use intensive pronouns as possessives. The *his* or *their* can't be used with the “self” or “selves” as the second syllable. **Example:** They *theirselves* are to blame. Revision: They *themselves* are to blame.

Adjectives

e184 **Adjective** An adjective modifies (describes) a proper noun, a common noun, or a pronoun and answers How many? Which one? or What kind? Adjectives are usually placed before nouns and pronouns and after the *articles* *a*, *an*, and *the*. **Examples:** He gave *that* man the *22* *delicious* apples.

e185 **Adjective** An adjective answers How many? Which one? or What kind? Adjectives Don't use descriptive adjectives instead of well-chosen, specific nouns and verbs. **Examples:** The *mean* boy was a *bully* to everyone. Revision: The brute bullied everyone.

€186 **Adjective** An adjective answers How many? Which one? or What kind? Avoid using adjectives that do not add meaning to a sentence, such as *interesting*, *beautiful*, *nice*, and *exciting*. **Example:** The *nice* girl shared her lunch. Revision: The girl shared her lunch.

€187 **Adjective** An adjective answers How many? Which one? or What kind? Be specific as possible with your adjectives. **Examples:** The *nice* man gave *some* roses to the *sad* widow. Revision: The *sympathetic* man gave a *dozen white* roses to the *grieving* widow.

€188 **Coordinate Adjectives** Coordinate adjectives are two or more adjectives that modify (describe) a noun or pronoun in the same way. If you can add *and* between the adjectives or reverse their order, use commas to separate them. **Examples:** A friendly, kind man visited us.

€189 **Cumulative Adjectives** Cumulative adjectives are two or more adjectives that modify (describe) a noun or pronoun in different ways. If you can't add *and* between the adjectives or reverse their order, don't separate them with commas. **Examples:** It's a big green bug.

€190 **Adjective Phrase** An adjective phrase is a group of related words that modifies (describes) a proper noun, a common noun, or a pronoun and answers How many? Which one? or What kind? **Example:** *The caring young man* worked hard.

€191 **Adjective Clause** An adjective clause includes a noun or pronoun and a verb and modifies (describes) another noun or pronoun in the sentence. These clauses often begin with *who*, *whose*, *on (for, of) whom*, *that*, and *which*. **Example:** Tom, whose work is well-known, was hired.

€192 **Article** An article (*a*, *an*, *the*) is an adjective used before a noun or other adjective. The *a* comes before a consonant sound; the *an* comes before a vowel sound. Both *a* and *an* indicate unspecific things, while *the* is specific. **Examples:** He wanted an egg or a tomato, but I gave him the toast.

€193 **Predicate Adjective** A predicate adjective follows a linking verb to modify (describe) the preceding noun or pronoun. Linking verbs include "to-be" verbs and *become*, *seem*, *look*, *feel*, *smell*, and *appear*. **Example:** *I feel proud*.

€194 **Demonstrative Adjective** The demonstrative adjectives *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* modify (describe) nouns or pronouns. *This* and *these* are close to the speaker; *that* and *those* are farther away. **Examples:** *This* right here is heavier than *those* over there.

€195 **Participle** A participle is a verb form that serves as an adjective. Present participles end in *ing*. Past participles end in *d*, *ed*, or *en*; however, some have irregular forms, many of which end in *t*. **Example:** Frightened, she put her head underneath the pillow.

e196 **Participial Phrase** A participial phrase is made up of a present or past participle with related words, all serving as an adjective. The participial phrase modifies (describes) a word or phrase in a connected independent clause. **Examples:** Beaten and tired, he quit.

Verbs

e197 **Verb** A verb mentally or physically acts or expresses a state of being. **Examples:** She *works* (physical action) long hours, but *knows* (mental action) that there *is* (state of being) more to life than work.

e198 **Base Form of the Verb** The base form of the verb is the unconjugated, simple verb form. The base verb form is the same as the present verb tense. Add on an ending s for the third personal singular. **Examples:** I *run*-He *runs*, You *eat*-She *eats*, They *know*-It *knows*.

e199 **Present Participle Verb** The present participle is a verb form that modifies (describes) the sentence subject. The present participle adds an “_ing” onto the base form of the verb and precedes a “to be” verb that matches the subject. **Example:** I am *walking*.

e200 **Past Tense Verb** The past verb tense adds “_d” or “_ed” at the end of the base form of the verb and performs the past physical or mental actions of the sentence subject. These actions are one-time events. **Examples:** I *walked* to the store. I *seemed* happy, but I wasn’t.

e201 **Past Participle Verb** A past participle adds “_d,” “_ed,” or “_en” at the end of the base form of the verb and indicates a completed action or state. They can be preceded by helping or linking verbs to adjust the meaning of the completed action or state. **Example:** He *has eaten*.

e202 **Helping Verb: Forms of Be** The “to be” verbs consist of the following: *is, am, are, was, were, be, being, and been*. Avoid using too many “to-be” verbs in your writing. Instead, use more specific, active verbs. **Examples:** They are strange. Revision: They act strangely.

e203 **Helping Verb: Forms of Do** The “do” verbs: *does, do, and did* indicate present or past tense and suggest an ongoing action, not a one-time event. **Examples:** They do (did) help the teacher.

e204 **Helping Verb: Forms of Have** The “have” verbs: *has, have, and had* indicate present or past tense and suggest an ongoing action for a specific amount of time. **Examples:** They have (had) help the teacher.

e205 **Helping Verb: Modals** The modals indicate a conditional sense in which there are alternative possibilities. The modals include the following: *can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, and would*. **Examples:** They *could* help the teacher if they wanted.

e206 **Linking Verb** Linking verbs follow a subject (without a main verb) and connect to a word(s) to identify, define, or describe that subject. Linking verbs include *is, am, are, was, were, be, being, been* and *become, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, taste*.
Example: Lori is strong.

e207 **Verb Phrase** A verb phrase consists of the main verb and any related words.
Examples: They *had been helping* their parents. *Having already appeared* at the news conference, they *secretly left* the event.

e208 **Present Tense Verb** The present tense describes a present physical or mental action or state of being. The present verb tense form is the same as the unconjugated base verb form. Add on an ending *s* for the third personal singular. **Examples:** I *walk*. He *thinks*. She *is* kind.

e209 **Present Tense Verb** The present tense can be used to generalize or to show repeated action. **Examples:** Everyone *knows* that wearing helmets prevents bicycle or skateboard injuries. I *wake* up every morning at 6:00 a.m.

e210 **Present Tense Verb** The present tense can reference the future in dependent clauses, when *will* is used in the connecting independent clause. **Example:** She will listen to me when I talk to her.

e211 **Present Tense Verb** The present tense can be used to discuss literature, art, movies, theater, and music—even if the content is set in the past or the creator is no longer alive. **Examples:** Shakespeare *gives* his characters unusual problems. *Rebecca* is an old movie classic.

e212 **Present Progressive Verb Form** The present progressive is a present tense verb form that adds an “_ing” onto the base form of the verb and precedes a “to be” verb to describe an ongoing action happening or existing now. **Example:** I *am walking* to the store.

e213 **Present Progressive Verb Form** Some verbs can’t use the present progressive form: *to be, to belong, to care, to cost, to exist, to envy, to fear, to hate, to like, to love, to mind, to need, to owe, to want*. **Example:** I *am fearing* it. Revision: I *fear* it.

e214 **Present Perfect Tense Verb** The present perfect verb tense is formed with *has* or *have* + the past participle and is used to describe an action that took place at some unidentified time in the past that relates to the present. **Example:** He *has talked* a lot.

e215 **Present Perfect Tense Verb** The present perfect verb tense is formed with *has* or *have* + the past participle and can be used to describe an action that began in the past but continues to the present. **Example:** They *have listened* to my advice.

e216 **Present Perfect Progressive Verb** The present perfect progressive form connects *has* or *have* + *been* to a present participle to describe an action that began in the past, continues in the present, and may continue into the future. **Example:** I *have been eating*.

e217 **Present Perfect Progressive Verb** Place adverbs before or after the present perfect progressive verb form. **Examples:** I *have already been eating*. Revision: I *already have been eating*. She *has been lately going*. Revision: She *has been going lately*.

e218 **Past Tense Verb** The past verb tense adds “__d” or “__ed” at the end of the base form of the verb and performs the past physical or mental actions of the sentence subject. These actions are one-time events that took place at a specific time.

Examples: I *asked* for it. You *appeared* anxious.

e219 **Past Perfect Tense Verb** The past perfect is formed with *had* + the past participle to describe an action that was completed before a specific time or another specific action in the past. **Example:** They *had tried* to compromise, until the opposition walked out.

e220 **Past Progressive Verb** The past progressive form connects *was* or *were* + the present participle to describe an ongoing action that took place over a period of time in the past (while another action was taking place). **Example:** I *was watching* the news while I ate.

e221 **Past Progressive Verb** The past progressive form connects *was* or *were* + the present participle to describe an ongoing action in the past that was briefly interrupted by another action of less importance. **Example:** I *was eating* my dinner, but then you interrupted.

e222 **Past Progressive Verb** The past progressive form often uses the word *while* to describe an ongoing past action. **Example:** I *was day-dreaming* while you talked. Using the word *when* indicates a specific past event and takes the past tense form. **Example:** I *cried* when he spoke.

e223 **Past Progressive Verb** The past progressive form can connect *was/were* + *going to have been* + the base form of the verb + __ing for an ongoing past action interrupted by another action. **Example:** I *was going to have been standing* for two hours when he finally arrived.

e224 **Past Perfect Progressive Verb** The past perfect progressive form connects *had been* + a present participle to describe a past continuous action that began in the past and continued until another time or event. **Example:** Because I *had not been studying*, I failed.

e225 **Future Tense Verb** The future tense is formed with *will* or *shall* + the base form of the verb to describe a physical or mental action or state of being in the future. Traditionally, *shall* has been used with 1st person “I” or “we” pronouns. **Examples:** You *will* stay, but I *shall* go.

e226 **Future Tense Verb** The future tense can use the modal helping verbs: *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, and *would* + the base form of the verb to signal a conditional sense. **Example:** Teresa *could leave tomorrow evening*.

e227 **Future Perfect Tense Verb** The future perfect tense is formed with *will* or *shall* + *have* + a past participle to describe an action that will be completed before a specific time or another action in the future. **Example:** The kids *will have practiced* for ten years by then.

e228 **Future Perfect Tense Verb** Don't use the future perfect tense to begin clauses with *when*, *while*, *before*, *after*, *by the time*, *as soon as*, *if*, *unless*. Use the present perfect tense instead. **Example:** While you *will have acted*... Revision: While you *have acted*...

e229 **Future Progressive Verb** The future progressive form connects *will* or *shall* + *be* to a present participle for an ongoing action that will take place over a period of time in the future (while another action takes place). **Example:** We *will be eating* while we play cards.

e230 **Future Progressive Verb** The future progressive form connects *will* or *shall* + *be* to a present participle for an ongoing future action that will be briefly interrupted by an action of less importance. **Example:** The varsity *will be playing*, after the junior varsity.

e231 **Future Progressive Verb** The future progressive form can connect *is/am/are* + *going to have been* + the base form of the verb + *ing* for an ongoing future action interrupted by another action. **Example:** I *am going to have been waiting* for one hour when the bus arrives.

e232 **Transitive Verb** A transitive verb is a mental or physical action that acts upon a direct object. The direct object answers *Whom?* or *What?* from the verb. **Example:** Lewis *gave* a wonderful gift.

e233 **Intransitive Verb** An intransitive verb is a mental or physical action that acts without an object. Linking verbs are all intransitive verbs. **Example:** The baby *screams* loudly.

e234 **Active Voice** In the active voice, the sentence subject performs the action of the predicate. In the passive voice, the subject receives the action. Use the active voice whenever possible. **Example:** It was said by me. Revision: I said it.

e235 **Passive Voice** In the passive voice, the sentence subject receives the action of the predicate. Use the passive voice when the subject is unknown or unimportant or in scientific writing to focus on objective data, not the sentence subject. **Example:** 25% received the pill.

e236 **Irregular Verb** An irregular verb does not form its past and past participle by adding on a *__d*, *__ed*, or *__en* ending onto the base form of the verb. The most frequent irregular verb ending is *__t*. **Examples:** *bent, bit, bought, felt, fought, got, kept, left, sent, shot, wrote*

Adverbs

e237 **Adverb** An adverb modifies (describes) a verb, an adjective, or an adverb by answering the following: How? When? Where? or What Degree? The adverb may be found before or after the word(s) that it modifies (describes). **Examples:** *Carefully*, you soon may walk *where* tigers *mostly* roam.

e238 **Adverb Placement** Adverbs are very flexible in English. They can be used in all parts of the sentence to add emphasis or greater precision in the hands of a skillful writer. **Examples:** *Quickly*, the man climbed the stairs. The man *quickly* climbed the stairs. Adverbs may also be placed between parts of a verb phrase. **Example:** Students just could *not* understand the test directions.

e239 **Adverb/Adjective Confusion** Adverbs are often formed by adding an *__ly* onto an adjective. However, some *__ly* words remain as adjectives. **Examples:** *Completely* honest, the *likely* winner admitted guilt. Explanation: *Completely* is an adverb while *likely* is an adjective.

e240 **Adverbial Phrase** Adverbial phrases are related words that describe a verb, an adjective, or an adverb and answer How? When? Where? or What degree? Many adverbial phrases are also prepositional phrases. **Example:** He hopes to finish the project *before summer*.

e241 **Adverb Order** As a matter of good writing style, place shorter adverbial phrases in front of longer ones. **Example:** The family walks *around the block after every Thanksgiving Dinner*. Explanation: The phrase *around the block* is shorter than *after every Thanksgiving*.

e242 **Adverb Order** As a matter of good writing style, place specific adverbs before general ones. **Example:** It should be *exactly where* I described, *next* to the desk, or *somewhere over there*. Explanation: The specific adverbs *exactly where* and *next* come before *somewhere over there*.

e243 **Unnecessary Adverb** Avoid overusing such adverbs as *very* that add little meaning to a sentence. **Example:** That is a very interesting idea. Revision: That is an interesting idea.

e244 **Repetitive Adverb** Delete repetitive adverbs that add no meaning to the sentence. **Example:** Potentially, the M.V.P. could become a Hall of Famer. Revision: The M.V.P. could become a Hall of Famer.

e245 **Adverb Modification of Adverbs** An adverb can provide additional detail and definition to another adverb in the sentence. **Example:** It would be wonderful to see each other *more often*. Explanation: The adverb *more* modifies (describes) the adverb *often*.

e246 **Adverbial Clause** An adverb clause is a dependent clause that modifies (describes) a verb, an adjective, or an adverb and answers How? When? Where? or What degree? A subordinating conjunction always introduces an adverb clause. **Example:** *How* he did it, I will never know.

e247 **Subjunctive Mood** Adverb clauses can use the subjunctive mood to express a fact, prediction, doubt, regret, or a guess. The subjunctive mood of the “to-be” verb is *were* in the past tense, no matter what the subject is. **Example:** If she were smarter, she would work harder.

e248 **Subjunctive Mood** Adverb clauses can use the subjunctive mood to express a fact, prediction, doubt, regret, or a guess. The subjunctive mood of the “to-be” verb is *be* in the present tense, no matter what the subject is. **Example:** His demand is that everyone be as clever as he.

e249 **Subjunctive Mood** Adverb clauses can use the subjunctive mood to express a wish. For a wish about something that has not yet happened, use the past tense or *were*. **Example:** I wish I were able to watch.

e250 **Subjunctive Mood** Adverb clauses can use the subjunctive mood to express a wish. For a wish about something that happened in the past, use the past perfect verb tense (*had* + the past participle). **Example:** I wish I had seen the last episode of that show.

e251 **Subjunctive Mood** Adverb clauses can also use the subjunctive mood to make a request. A request can be in the form of a favor, proposal, or demand. Use the base form of the verb, whether the subject is singular or plural. **Example:** I recommend that he *give* the note back to the girl.

Modifiers

e252 **Modifiers** A modifier describes the meaning of another word(s) or words to make the word(s) more specific or to limit meaning. **Example:** I ate the *big* piece.

e253 **Short Comparative Modifiers** Use the suffix “_er” for a one-syllable modifier to compare two things. **Example:** She is *short-er* than I.

e254 **Short Comparative Modifiers** Use “_er” or *more* (*less*) for a two-syllable modifier to compare two things. **Example:** He seems *more help-ful* than they.

e255 **Short Superlative Modifier** Use the suffix “_est” for a one-syllable modifier to compare three or more things. **Example:** Of Rachel, Tim, and Sam, Rachel is the *smart-est*.

e256 **Short Superlative Modifier** Use “_est,” *most*, or *least* for a two-syllable modifier to compare three or more things. **Example:** Of Rachel, Tim, and Sam, Rachel has the *most tal-ent*).

e257 **Long or _ly Comparative Modifier** Use *more* or *less* for a three-syllable (or longer) modifier to compare two things. **Example:** Frank was *more gen-er-ous* than Keith.

e258 **Long or _ly Comparative Modifier** Use *more* or *less* for all adverbs ending in “_ly” to compare two things. **Examples:** She apologized *more con-vin-cing-ly* than did her friend.

e259 **Long or _ly Superlative Modifier** Use *most* (*least*) for a three-syllable or longer modifier to compare three or more things. **Example:** Of the five contestants, Jane spoke *most care-ful-ly*.

e260 **Dangling Modifier** A dangling modifier is not directly connected to the noun and so creates confusion for the reader. **Example:** Wanted: Someone to care for an old elephant who does not smoke or drink.

e261 **Modifier Placement** A modifier should be placed, whenever possible, next to the word it modifies. **Example:** The modifier in the following sentences is *only*. She *only* requested two appetizers. Revision: She requested *only* two appetizers.

Prepositions

e262 **Preposition** A preposition is a word that has a relationship to its object (a noun or a pronoun). The preposition is always part of a phrase and comes before its object. The preposition asks “What?” and the object provides the answer.

Example: He ran *up the road*.

e263 **Preposition** A preposition is always part of a phrase and comes before its object. The preposition asks “What?” and the object provides the answer. It is considered poor writing style to end a sentence with a preposition **Example:** He gave *up*. Revision: He gave *up the practice*.

e264 **Preposition** It is considered poor writing style to string too many prepositional phrases together. **Example:** Peter Rabbit ran *through the field, under the fence, into the garden*. Revision: Peter Rabbit ran *through the field*. Then he ran *under the fence and into the garden*.

Conjunctions

e265 **Coordinating Conjunction** A coordinating conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses. The acronym, F.A.N.B.O.Y.S. (For-And-Nor-But-Or-Yet-So), may help you remember the most common two or three-letter coordinating conjunctions. **Example:** I need one *or* two.

e266 **Correlative Conjunction** Correlative conjunctions are pairs of conjunctions that join words, phrases, or clauses. The pairs include *both-and*, *not only-but also*, *either-or*, *whether-or*, *neither-nor*. **Example:** Both Jake *and* Kenny went to college.

e267 **Subordinating Conjunction** A subordinating conjunction begins an adverb clause to indicate time (*when*), cause-effect (*if*), or exception (*although*). The adverb clause is subordinate to (of less importance than) independent clause. **Example:** *If* I saw you...

Sentence Structure and Types of Sentences

Subjects and Predicates

e268 **Simple Subject** The simple subject is the common noun, proper noun, or pronoun that serves as the “do-er” of the sentence. It tells whom or what the sentence is about. **Example:** A *nurse* assisted the patient.

e269 **Complete Subject** When additional words help name or describe the simple subject and serve as the “do-er” of the sentence, these words form a *complete subject*. **Example:** A *skilled nurse* assisted the patient.

e270 **Compound Subject** When two or more connected nouns or pronouns serve as the “do-ers” of the sentence, these words form a *compound subject*. A conjunction such as *and* or *or* connects them. **Example:** Both a *doctor and a skilled nurse* assisted the patient.

e271 **Sentence Subject Placement** The simple, complete, or compound subject is usually placed at the start of a declarative sentence. The sentence subject is never part of a prepositional phrase. **Example:** *The talkative friends* went into the room to gossip.

e272 **Sentence Subject Placement** Frequently, in imperative sentences, the sentence subject *you* is implied (suggested, not stated). **Example:** (You) Take out the trash to the curb and (you) get ready for dinner.

e273 **Sentence Subject Placement** In interrogative sentences, the sentence subject comes after the predicate or comes between the parts of the verb. **Examples:** *Is she the one? Will Tom know what to do?*

e274 **Simple Predicate** The simple predicate is the verb that acts upon the subject of the sentence. It does the work of the “do-er” of the sentence. The simple predicate shows a physical or mental action or it describes a state of being. **Examples:** She *runs*. She *thinks*. She *is* kind.

e275 **Compound Predicate** When two or more connected verbs complete the actions of the sentence subject(s), these words form a *compound predicate*. A conjunction such as *and* or *or* is usually placed between the verbs. **Examples:** Suzanne *prepared and served* a fantastic dinner.

e276 **Complete Predicate** A complete predicate consists of all of the words in a sentence other than the subject and the words that modify (describe) that subject. **Example:** Her friends *think that she should leave*.

e277 **Simple Sentence** A simple sentence has just one independent clause. An independent clause simply means that there is a subject and a predicate that expresses a complete thought. A simple sentence may have a connected phrase. **Example:** After breakfast, they went for a walk.

Types of Sentences

e278 **Complete Sentence** A complete sentence 1. tells a complete thought 2. has a subject and predicate 3. has the voice drop down at the end of a statement but go up at the end of a question. **Examples:** *They finished* their work. (Voice drops down.) *Are they finished?* (Voice goes up.)

e279 **Compound Sentence** A compound sentence has two or more independent clauses, joined by a comma-conjunction or a semicolon. No dependent clause (a noun and verb that does not express a complete thought) is attached. **Example:** I like her, and she likes me.

e280 **Compound Sentence** Compound sentences help clarify the relationship between independent clauses. Avoid placing two compound sentences next to each other in the same paragraph. **Example:** We asked for silence, so they stopped talking.

e281 **Complex Sentence** A complex sentence has both an independent clause and a dependent clause(s). An independent clause expresses a complete thought; a dependent (subordinate) clause has a noun and a verb that does not express a complete thought. **Example:** When he left, I cried.

e282 **Complex Sentence** A complex sentence has both an independent clause and a dependent clause(s). Complex sentences define relationships between ideas. If a dependent clause begins a sentence, follow with a comma. **Example:** Although he was ashamed, Ty asked for help.

e283 **Compound-Complex Sentence** A compound-complex sentence has two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause. **Example:** After he ate lunch (dependent clause), Tam finished his chores (independent clause), and he took a nap (independent clause).

e284 **Declarative Sentence** A declarative sentence makes a statement. The statement may be a fact, an idea, or an argument. **Examples:** Lincoln was shot in 1865. His death made him a martyr. The assassination prevented a peaceful reconstruction of our nation.

e285 **Interrogative Sentence** An interrogative sentence asks a question. In essays, avoid using interrogatives as thesis statements. **Example:** How does the moon influence the ocean tides?

e286 **Exclamatory Sentence** An exclamatory sentence expresses surprise or strong emotion and ends with one exclamation point. Some exclamatory expressions are interjections and have no relationship with the connecting sentence. **Examples:** The thunder startled me! Wow!

e287 **Imperative Sentence** An imperative sentence gives a command and frequently uses an implied (suggested) *you* as the sentence subject. **Example:** Walk to the store, shop, and then run home.

e288 **Sentence Fragment** A sentence fragment is only part of a complete sentence. To fix a sentence fragment, connect the fragment to the sentence before or after.

Example: Because of the ice. The roads were hazardous. Revision: The roads were a hazardous because of the ice.

e289 **Sentence Fragment** A sentence fragment is only part of a complete sentence. To fix a sentence fragment, change the fragment into a complete thought.

Example: Mainly the lack of time. Revision: Mainly, they needed more time.

e290 **Sentence Fragment** A sentence fragment is only part of a complete sentence. To fix a sentence fragment, remove any subordinating conjunctions.

Example: Although she found out where the boys were. Revision: She found out where the boys were.

e291 **Sentence Run-on** A sentence run-on has two independent clauses connected without correct punctuation. To fix a sentence run-on, separate the run-on into two sentences. **Example:** Lou told his mom he told his sister. Revision: Lou told his mom. He told his sister.

e292 **Sentence Run-on** A sentence run-on has two independent clauses connected without correct punctuation. To fix a sentence run-on, add a semicolon between the clauses. **Example:** Lou told his mom he told his sister. Revision: Lou told his mom; he told his sister.

e293 **Sentence Run-on** A sentence run-on has two independent clauses connected without correct punctuation. To fix a sentence run-on, add a comma-conjunction between the clauses. **Example:** Lou told his mom he told his sister. Revision: Lou told his mom, and he told his sister.

Mechanics

Commas

e294 **Speaker Tag** In dialogue sentences, place commas after a beginning speaker tag to the left of the quotation marks. Question marks and exclamation points can also separate speaker tags from dialogue. **Example:** He said, “I shouldn’t listen to what you say.”

e295 **Speaker Tag** In dialogue sentences, place commas before and after a middle speaker tag to the left of both quotation marks. Question marks and exclamation points can also separate speaker tags from dialogue. **Example:** “But if you don’t, he shouted “you will never win.”

e296 **Speaker Tag** In dialogue sentences, place commas before an ending speaker tag to the left of the quotation marks. Question marks and exclamation points can also separate speaker tags from dialogue. **Example:** “Okay. I will give you another chance,” he responded.

e297 **Appositive** Use commas to set apart appositives. An appositive is a noun or pronoun placed next to another noun or pronoun to identify, define, or describe it. The appositive can be a word, phrase, or clause. **Example:** That man, the one with the hat, left town quickly.

e298 **Commas in Series** Use commas after each item in lists (except the last). Use commas after each item in lists, except the last one. Newspapers and some magazines eliminate the last comma; however, most style manuals still require the last comma. **Example:** John, Jane, and Jose left early.

e299 **Commas in Series** Commas are used after each item in lists (except the last), except in newspapers, magazines, and in the names of business firms in which the last comma is eliminated. **Example:** They used the law firm of Jones, Nelson and Company.

e300 **Introductory Word(s)** Use commas after introductory words, phrases, or clauses. Drop the comma if the sentence is very short and there is no necessary pause. **Examples:** First, listen to me. First of all, listen to me. After you first sit up, listen to me. Then I went home.

e301 **Geography** Place commas between related geographical place names and after the last place name, unless it appears the end of a sentence. When the place name is a possessive, this rule does not apply. **Examples:** She lived in Rome, Italy, for a year. Rome, Italy’s traffic is congested.

e302 **Dates** Use commas to separate number dates and years. Don’t place a comma following the year. **Example:** It all happened on May 3, 1999. On May 4, 1999 we went back home.

e303 **Direct Address** Use commas to separate nouns of direct address. The noun can be a word, phrase, or clause. If at the beginning of the sentence, one comma follows. **Examples:** Kristen, leave some for your sister. Officer Daniels, I need your help. Whoever you are, stop talking.

e304 **Direct Address** Use commas to separate nouns of direct address. The noun can be a word, phrase, or clause. If in the middle of the sentence, one comma goes before and one follows. **Examples:** If you insist, Dad, I will. If you insist, Your Honor, I will.

e305 **Direct Address** Use commas to separate nouns of direct address. The noun can be a word, phrase, or clause. If at the end of the sentence, one comma goes before the noun. **Examples:** Just leave a little bit, honey. Just leave a little bit, best girlfriend.

e306 **Compound Sentence** Use commas before coordinating conjunctions to join two independent clauses. **Example:** I liked her, *and* she liked me.

e307 **Compound Sentence** Use commas before subordinating conjunctions to join two independent clauses. **Example:** I never got her letter, *although* she did write.

e308 **Compound Sentence** Use commas before the second of the paired correlative conjunctions to join two independent clauses. **Example:** *Either* he must go, *or* you must go.

e309 **Commas to Enclose Parenthetical Expressions** Use commas before and after words that interrupt the flow of the sentence. If the interruption is minimal, you may leave out the commas. **Example:** The best way to see the game, if you can afford it, is in person.

e310 **Commas to Enclose Parenthetical Expressions** Use commas before and after words that interrupt the flow of the sentence. If the interruption begins with a conjunction, place the comma before the conjunction. **Example:** They asked permission first, but only after they had bought the tickets.

e311 **Commas to Enclose Non-restrictive Clauses** Use commas before and after non-restrictive clauses. A non-restrictive clause doesn't limit the meaning of the independent clause to which it is attached; instead, the clause adds information. **Example:** You can visit, if you have the money, on a cruise ship.

e312 **Commas and Restrictive Clauses** Don't use commas before and after restrictive clauses. A restrictive clause limits the meaning of the independent clause to which it is attached. **Example:** The student who wins the most votes will be elected Student Council President.

e313 **Comma and Abbreviations** These abbreviations: Sr. (senior), Jr. (*junior*), and etc. (*et cetera*) are always preceded by a comma. Don't place commas after these abbreviations. **Examples:** Howard, Sr. had Howard, Jr., take out the trash, water the lawn, pull weeds, etc.

e314 **Comma and Duplicate Words** Place commas between repeated words when needed to improve clarity. **Examples:** Tommy and Pam moved in, in May.

e315 **Comma to Replace Missing Words** Use commas to replace omitted words, especially the word *that*. **Examples:** I am a vegetarian; my wife, a meat-eater. Win some, lose some. What I mean is, she hasn't changed her diet and followed mine.

e316 **Comma Splice** Two independent clauses are joined by a comma-conjunction or a semicolon. Use a semicolon only if the clauses are closely related. **Examples:** The boy went to the lake, and he caught a fish. The boy went the lake; he caught a fish.

Capitalization

e317 **People and Character Names** Capitalize people's and characters' names. Also, capitalize people's titles, such as The President of the United States or Alexander the Great. Do not capitalize an article (*a, an, the*) that is part of the title, unless it begins the title. **Example:** President James Earl Carter worked to provide housing for the poor.

e318 **Place Names** Capitalize place names. Do not capitalize a preposition that is part of a title, unless it begins the title. Examples: Stratford upon Avon or Cardiff by the Sea. **Examples:** Ryan visited Los Angeles to see the Holocaust Museum.

e319 **Names of Things** Capitalize named things. Do not capitalize a conjunction that is part of a title, unless it begins the title. Example: President Lincoln and Soldiers' Home is a national monument in Washington D.C. **Example:** The Old North Church and Fenway Park are in Boston.

e320 **Names of Holidays** Capitalize holidays. Normally, it is proper form to spell out numbers from one through ten in writing. However, when used as a date name, the numerical number is used. **Example:** They celebrate the *4th of July*, but not Easter.

e321 **Dates and Seasons Names** Capitalize dates, but do not capitalize seasons. **Example:** The winter months consist of December, January, February, and March.

e322 **Titles of Things** Capitalize the words in titles. Don't capitalize articles (*a, an, the*), conjunctions (*and*), or prepositions (*with*), unless these words begin or end the title. **Examples:** My favorite Jim Morrison song is "The End." I like the movie *Gone with the Wind*.

e323 **Titles of Courses or Classes** Capitalize the titles of specific academic course or classes, including any connected letters. **Example:** Next spring Jake has to take Math Analysis 2C in order to stay on track for early graduation.

e324 **Hyphenated Titles** Capitalize the first and second parts of hyphenated titles if they are nouns or adjectives that have equal importance. **Example:** The Twentieth-Century was haunted by two world wars.

e325 **Hyphenated Titles** Don't capitalize a word following a hyphen if both words make up a single word or if the second word is a participle modifying the first word. **Examples:** Top Twenty Large-sized Models and English-language Arts

e326 **Organization Names** Capitalize the names of organizations and the letters of acronyms that represent organizations. More commonly now, writers drop the periods in well-known acronyms. **Examples:** M.A.D.D. has both parents and teachers as members, as does the PTA.

e327 **Business Names** Capitalize the names of businesses and the letters of acronyms that represent organizations and businesses. More commonly now, writers drop the periods in well-known acronyms. **Examples:** McDonald's provided money for our school uniforms, as did IBM.

e328 **Language and Dialect Names** Capitalize the names of languages and dialects. **Examples:** He spoke Spanish with a Castilian dialect.

e329 **People Groups** Capitalize the names of people groups, including nationalities, races, and ethnic groups. However, do not capitalize colors, such as *black* or *white*, when referring to race. **Examples:** Both Aztecs and Mexicans share a common heritage.

e330 **People Groups** Capitalize the names of people groups, including nationalities, races, and ethnic groups. However, do not capitalize colors, such as *black* or *white*, when referring to race. **Examples:** Both Aztecs and Mexicans share a common heritage.

e331 **Event Names** Capitalize the names of special events. **Examples:** The New Year's Day Parade was fun, but the Mardi Gras was even better.

e332 **Historical Period Names** Capitalize named historical periods. Leave articles, conjunctions, and prepositions in lower case, unless they begin or end the historical period. **Examples:** My favorite period of history has to be the Middle Ages or the Age of Reason.

e333 **Time Period Names** Capitalize the names of special periods of time. Use lower case and periods for "a.m." and "p.m." Leave articles, conjunctions, and prepositions in lower case, unless they begin or end the time period. **Example:** Next year we celebrate the Year of the Dog.

e334 **Quotation Capitalization** Capitalize the first word in a quoted sentence. Don't capitalize the first word of a continuing quote that was interrupted by a speaker tag. **Examples:** She said, "You are crazy. However," she paused, "it is crazy to be in love with you."

e335 **Capitalization Following Colons** Don't capitalize the first word (or any word) in a list following a colon if it is a common noun. **Example:** Bring home these items: tortillas, sugar, and milk.

e336 **Capitalization Following Colons** Don't capitalize the first word following a colon that begins an independent clause. **Example:** I just re-read Lincoln's best speech: his Second Inaugural Address is brilliant.

e337 **Capitalization Following Colons** Capitalize the first word following a colon if it begins a series of sentences. **Example:** Good writing rules should include the following: Neatness counts. Indent each paragraph one inch. Proofread before publishing.

e338 **Titles of People** Capitalize the title of a person when it precedes the name. Don't capitalize the title if it does not precede the name. **Examples:** I heard the senator ask Mayor Johnson a question.

e339 **Titles of People** Capitalize the title of a person when it follows someone's name—then a comma—in correspondence. **Example:** The letter was signed as follows: John Pearson, Chairperson.

e340 **Titles of People** Capitalize the title of a person when the title is used as a noun of direct address. **Example:** I do plead guilty, Your Honor.

e341 **Letter Salutations and Closings** Capitalize the salutations and closings in both friendly and business letters, excluding articles, conjunctions, and prepositions that don't begin or end the salutations or closings. **Examples:** Dear Son, ... Love, Dad

e342 **Locational Names** Capitalize the locational names on a compass when they refer to specific places. Leave directions in lower case. **Examples:** Ivan grew up here on the Lower Eastside of New York City, but I am from the South. Ivan knew that we should head south for two blocks.

e343 **Titles of Agencies** Capitalize the titles of governmental agencies, including these words when connected to the agency titles: *City, County, Commonwealth, State,* and *Federal*. **Example:** The Federal Bureau of Investigation had targeted his operation.

Quotation Marks, Italicizing, Underlining

e344 **Quotation Marks** Use quotation marks to title parts of whole things.

Example: The best chapter is titled “Mad Men.”

e345 **Dialogue** When a quotation is interrupted by comments, and then continues in the same sentence, begin the rest of the quotation with a lower case letter.

Example: “I realize,” she paused to reconsider “that I may have been mistaken.”

e346 **Dialogue** A change in speaker requires a new paragraph.

Examples:

“I think you’re wrong,” said Victor.

“I know I’m right,” Sal replied.

e347 **Direct Quotations** Use quotation marks before and after direct quotations with commas placed to the left of the quotation marks. Periods go inside the closing quotation marks. **Examples:** She said, “Call me.” “If I call,” he said, “it’ll be late.” “Then, text me,” she replied.

e348 **Direct Quotations** Question marks and exclamation points go inside the quotation marks, if part of the quoted sentence, but outside, if not. **Examples:** She said, “Call me.” “If I call,” he said, “it’ll be late.” “Then, text me,” she replied.

e349 **Direct Quotations** Colons replace commas following beginning speaker tags to introduce dialogue at the beginning of sentences, if the sentence is very long.

Example: She explained: “No one knew whether the emergency doctor knew how to handle the medical crisis or not.”

e350 **Direct Quotations** Colons go outside the closing quotation marks.

Example: “Ask not what your country can do for you. Ask what you can do for your country”: these words were President John F. Kennedy’s most memorable.

e351 **Direct Quotations** Semicolons go outside the closing quotation marks.

Example: George exclaimed, “I made twenty sales today”; however, George said he had only twelve.

e352 **Direct Quotations** Quotation marks are used for direct quotations in reference citations. Place the author and/or page reference and ending punctuation outside the quotation marks. **Example:** “Over 54% remained neutral” (Adams 34).

e353 **Direct Quotations** When asking a question about a quotation, remove the ending punctuation, add an ending quotation mark, and then follow with the question mark.

Example: Did Jefferson say “...all men are created equal”?

e354 **Direct Quotations** Formal quotations are introduced by a colon and are enclosed in quotation marks. **Example:** The Preamble to the Constitution states: “We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice...”

e355 **Direct Quotations** When removing words from a direct quotation, use the ellipsis (...) inside the quotation marks. Only remove information that is irrelevant to the quotation. **Example:** Did Jefferson say “...all men are created equal”?

e356 **Long Quotations** Quotations longer than three lines (not three sentences) should be indented as a block text.

e357 **Indirect Quotations** Indirect quotations do not need quotation marks. When citing specific information, place the author and/or page reference before the ending punctuation. **Example:** Most credited General Washington’s inspiring leadership (Adams 34).

e358 **Indirect Quotations** Indirect quotations do not need quotation marks. Only indirect quotations of a general nature may be used without citations. **Example:** She told me everything about college life.

e359 **Indirect Quotations** Indirect quotations do not need quotation marks. Use periods to end indirect questions. **Example:** He asked me where the restroom is located.

e360 **Quotations within Quotations** Use single quotation marks inside a quotation for a quotation or a title in quotation marks within a quotation. **Examples:** He asked, “What did Dr. King mean by ‘free at last’ in his famous speech?”

e361 **Book Chapter** Use quotation marks before and after book chapter titles. Helpful Hint: If the item cannot be picked up from a table, such as a book chapter, it is placed within quotation marks. **Example:** The best chapter in the book was titled “The Final Act.”

e362 **Article** Use quotation marks before and after magazine, Internet, and newspaper article titles. Helpful Hint: If the text is something short, such as an article, place the title within quotation marks. **Example:** Did you read the article, “Why We Continue,” in New Yorker Magazine?

e363 **Song/Video** Use quotation marks before and after song titles. Helpful Hint: Titles that are parts of whole things are usually placed within quotation marks. **Example:** My favorite song and video is the Black Eyed Peas “Just Can’t Get Enough,” from the album The Beginning.

e364 **Poem** As a general rule, poems (usually parts of poetry anthologies) are placed within quotation marks. Long epic poems are either underlined or italicized. **Examples:** He read Shakespeare’s “Sonnet IV.” I read parts of Homer’s The Iliad.

e365 **Document/Report** Place document titles within quotation marks. **Example:** The newspaper article was based on the secret government document known as “The Pentagon Papers.” Familiar documents such as the Declaration of Independence require no punctuation.

e366 **Short Story** Place titles of short stories within quotation marks. **Example:** His short story, “He Never Lies,” may have been based on the novel, *Why He Never Lies*.

e367 **Book** Underline or italicize book titles. Helpful Hint: If the item can be picked up from a table, such as a book, it is underlined or italicized. **Example:** *Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows* is the last book in the series.

e368 **Album/CD** Underline or italicize album titles. Helpful Hint: If the work is a “whole thing,” consisting of many parts, such as an album, underline or italicize the title. **Example:** Every song is a classic on the Beatles’ Abbey Road album.

e369 **Movie** Underline or italicize movie titles. Helpful Hint: If the work is “long” or comprehensive, underline or italicize the title. **Example:** The movie Avatar was filmed in 3-D.

e370 **Television Show** Underline or italicize television show titles. **Example:** The most popular television show for many years was American Idol.

e371 **Game** Underline or italicize board games and video games. **Examples:** Their parents enjoy playing *Monopoly*®, but their sons like playing *Super Mario Bros*.

e372 **Magazine/Blog** Underline or italicize magazine titles. **Examples:** They found great dessert recipes in *Good Housekeeping*™ magazine and on the *Clumsy Cookie* blog.

e373 **Newspaper** Underline or italicize the titles of newspapers. **Example:** My favorite section of the *Los Angeles Times* is the “Entertainment” section.

e374 **Play** Underline or italicize titles of plays. **Example:** Act II Scene I was titled “Beginnings,” but the play was titled “The End.”

e375 **Work of Art** Underline or italicize works of art. **Examples:** Da Vinci’s painting, *Mona Lisa*, and Michelangelo’s sculpture, *David*, are the two best known works of art.

e376 **Underlining/Italics: Emphasis** Underline or italicize to title whole things or words that need special emphasis. **Example:** *Walk Two Moons* is the novel to read.

Additional Punctuation

e377 **Singular Possessive** A possessive is a noun or pronoun that serves as an adjective to show ownership. For a singular possessive, place an apostrophe at the end of the noun and add an s. **Example:** His mom's cookies are the best.

e378 **Singular Possessive** A possessive is a noun or pronoun that serves as an adjective to show ownership. When ending in an s having a /z/ sound, place an apostrophe, then an s, or simply end with an apostrophe. **Examples:** Charles's friend or Charles' friend is fun.

e379 **Singular Possessive** A possessive is a noun or pronoun that serves as an adjective to show ownership. Don't use an apostrophe with a possessive pronoun (yours, his, hers, ours, yours, its, theirs). **Examples:** That plate is your's. Revision: That plate is yours.

e380 **Singular Possessive** A possessive is a noun or pronoun that serves as an adjective to show ownership. A singular possessive noun can connect to gerunds (verb forms ending in "ing" that serve as sentence subjects). **Example:** Joe's cooking is not the best.

e381 **Singular Possessive** A possessive is a noun or pronoun that serves as an adjective to show ownership. Place the apostrophe before the s for singular indefinite pronouns. **Examples:** Now it is *anybody's, everybody's, somebody's, somebody else's, either's* ballgame.

e382 **Plural Possessive** For a plural possessive of a singular word that doesn't end in s, place the apostrophe after the s. If the singular and plural forms are spelled differently, place the apostrophe before the s. **Examples:** The girls' team is good, but the women's team isn't.

e383 **Plural Possessive** For a plural possessive of a singular word that does end in s, add "es" and then the apostrophe. **Example:** Our stove worked better than the Thomases' stove.

e384 **Plural Possessive** When two or more words share joint ownership, the possessive form is used only for the last word. **Example:** Matt and Suzanne's wedding was the social event of the season.

e385 **Plural Possessive** When two or more words are combined to show individual ownership of something, the possessive form is used for each of the words. **Examples:** Linda's, Christie's, and Wendy's dresses were each individually designed.

e386 **Plural Possessive** When two or more words are combined to show individual ownership of something, the possessive form is used for each of the words. **Examples:** Linda's, Christie's, and Wendy's dresses were each individually designed.

e387 **Period** When ending declarative and imperative sentences with initials, abbreviations, and acronyms, use one period. When ending interrogative and exclamatory sentences, keep the period and add the question mark or exclamation point. **Examples:** Is he John, Jr.? Viva U.S.A.!

e388 **Acronyms** An acronym is any abbreviation formed from the first letters of each word in a phrase. Most frequently used acronyms do not require periods. **Example:** HTML (Hyper Text Markup Language).

e389 **Abbreviations** Use abbreviations with ending periods to shorten a word or words. **Example:** The U.S. congressional reps. told the president “No.”

e390 **Contractions** A contraction is a shortened form of one or two words (one of which is usually a verb). An apostrophe takes the place of a missing letter(s) at the beginning, middle, or end of the word. **Examples:** ‘Tis almost Halloween, but don’t light the jack-o’-lantern yet.

e391 **Semicolons** Use semicolons to join independent clauses with or without conjunctions. Semicolons combine related phrases or dependent clauses. **Example:** Anna showed up late; Louise didn’t at all.

e392 **Colons** Use colons to show a relationship between numbers. **Example:** At 8:02 p.m. the ratio of girls to boys at the dance was 3:1.

e393 **Colons** Use colons to show a relationship within titles. **Example:** Many people are familiar with “*Psalm 23: 1*” and refer to it as “The Lord is My Shepherd: Psalm 23.”

e394 **Colons** Use colons after business letter salutations. **Example:** To Whom It May Concern: Thank you for your employment application.

e395 **Colons** Use colons at the end of an independent clause to introduce information to explain the clause. **Example:** This is the most important rule: Keep your hands to yourself.

e396 **Exclamation Points** Use one exclamation point at the end of a word, phrase, or complete sentence to show strong emotion or surprise. Phrases or clauses beginning with *What* and *How* that don’t ask questions should end with exclamation points. **Examples:** Wow! How amazing! The decision really shocked me!

e397 **Parentheses** Use parentheses following words to identify, explain, or define. **Examples:** That shade of lipstick (the red) goes perfectly with her hair color. The new schedule (which begins next year) seems confusing. The protocol (rules to be followed) was to ask questions after the presentation.

e398 **Parentheses** Ending punctuation never is placed inside of parentheses, even when the parenthetical remark stands on its own as a complete sentence.

Examples: I want that Popsicle® (the orange one). He was crazy. (He didn't even know what day it was).

e399 **Parentheses** Information in a parenthesis is not considered of major importance. Avoid using too many parenthetical remarks in your writing. **Example:** That girl (the one in the red hat) was egotistical (self-centered) and irritating. Revision: That self-centered girl in the red hat was irritating.

e400 **Dashes** Use dashes before and after appositives. Appositives identify, explain, or define. **Example:** The best movies-those with memorable plots-are worth repeated viewings.

e401 **Brackets** Use brackets before and after words or ideas to make them more clear. Brackets add explanation or necessary background knowledge for the reader.

Examples: George Washington [1732-1799] was gracious to Lord Cornwallis [the British general who surrendered at Yorktown].

e402 **Hyphens** Use hyphens to divided words at syllables when more space is required at the end of a line. Also use hyphens to join words that are necessarily related, but are not compound words. Don't capitalize the letter following the hyphen.

Example: We read a spine-tingling story in English-language Arts.

Conventional Spelling Rules

e403 **The i before e Rule** Usually spell *i* before *e* (*believe*), but spell *e* before *i* after a *c* (*receive*) and when the letters are pronounced as a long /a/ sound (*neighbor*). The rule only applies to the *i* and *e* spelling combination within one syllable, so the rule does not apply to words such as *sci-ence*.

e404 **The i before e Rule** Usually spell *i* before *e* (*believe*), but spell *e* before *i* after a *c* (*receive*) and when the letters are pronounced as a long /a/ sound (*neighbor*). The rule doesn't apply to plurals of words ending in "cy." **Examples:** *delicacies, frequencies, vacancies*.

e405 **The i before e Rule** Usually spell *i* before *e* (*believe*), but spell *e* before *i* after a *c* (*receive*) and when the letters are pronounced as a long /a/ sound (*neighbor*). Exceptions to the *i* before *e* rule include the following: *neither, either, weird, forfeit, caffeine, height*, to name a few.

e406 **The Final y Rule** Keep the *y* when adding an ending if the word ends in a vowel, then a *y* (*delay-delayed*), or if the ending begins with an *i* (*copy-copying*). Change the *y* to *i* if the word ends in a consonant, then a *y* (*pretty-prettiest*). Exceptions include *dryly, dryness, shyly, shyness, slyly, and slyness*.

e407 **The Silent e Rule** Drop the silent *e* at the end of a root when adding a suffix if that suffix begins with a vowel (*have-having*). Some British spellings drop the silent final *e* when the suffix begins with a consonant. **Examples:** *judgment* and *argument*.

e408 **The Silent e Rule** Keep the silent *e* when the ending begins with a consonant (*close-closely*), has a soft /c/ or /g/ sound-then an "ous" (*gorgeous*) or "able" (*peaceable*), or if it ends in "ee", "oe", or "ye" (*freedom, shoeing, eyeing*).

e409 **The Double the Consonant Rule** Double the ending consonant of a root, when adding a suffix (*permitted*), if all three of these conditions are met: 1. The last syllable has the accent (*per / mit*) 2. The last syllable ends in a vowel, then a consonant (*permit*). 3. The suffix begins with a vowel (*ed*).

e410 **The Double the Consonant Rule** Don't double the ending consonant of a root, when adding a suffix if the root ends in *k, w, x, y, or z*. **Examples:** *locked, knowing, boxed, saying, lazier*.

e411 **The Double the Consonant Rule** Don't double the ending consonant of a root, when adding a suffix if the root ends in a vowel team followed by a consonant. **Examples:** *hauling, howling, appealed*.

e412 **The Ending "an" or "en" Rule** End a word with "ance", "ancy", or "ant" if the root before has a hard /c/ or /g/ sound (*vacancy, arrogance*) or if the root ends with "ear" or "ure" (*clearance, insurance*).

e413 **The Ending “an” or “en” Rule** End a word with “ence”, “ency”, or “ent” if the root before has a soft /c/ or /g/ sound (*magnificent, emergency*), after “id” (*residence*), or if the root ends with “ere” (*reverence*).

e414 **The “able” or “ible” Rule** End a word with “able” if the root before has a hard /c/ or /g/ sound (*despicable, navigable*), after a complete root word (*teachable*), or after a silent *e* (*likeable*).

e415 **The “able” or “ible” Rule** End a word with “ible” if the root has a soft /c/ or /g/ sound (*reducible, legible*), after an “ss” (*admissible*), or after an incomplete root word (*audible*).

e416 **The Ending “ion” Rule** Spell “sion” (*illusion*) for the final *zyun* sound or the final *shun* sound (*expulsion, compassion*) if after an *l* or *s*.

e417 **The Ending “ion” Rule** Spell “cian” for the final *shun* sound suffix to indicate a person who does the task of the root (*musician, magician*) and “tion” (*condition*) in most all other cases.

e418 **The Ending “ion” Spelling Rule** Spell “tion” (*condition*) for the final *shun* unless after an *l* or *s* sound (“_sion”) or unless the suffix indicates a person (“_cian”).

e419 **The Plurals Spelling Rule** To form plurals, add *s* onto the end of most nouns (*dog-dogs*), even those that end in *y* (*day-days*) or those that end in a vowel, then an *o* (*stereo-stereos*).

e420 **The Plurals Spelling Rule** To form a plural when a noun ends in these sounds: /s/, /x/, /z/, /ch/, or /sh/, add “es” (*loss-losses, fox-foxes, box-boxes, buzz-buzzes, march-marches, marsh-marshes*). To form plurals when words end in a consonant, then an *o*, add “es” (*potato-potatoes*).

e421 **The Plurals Spelling Rule** To form a plural when a noun ends in a consonant, then a *y*, change the final *y* to *i* and add “es” (*ferry-ferries*).

e422 **The Plurals Spelling Rule** To form a plural when a noun ends in “fe” or “lf,” change these spellings to “ves” (*knife-knives, shelf-shelves*).

e423 **The Plurals Spelling Rule** To form a plural of a name ending in *s*, add “es.”
Examples: *Jones* forms the plural *Joneses* and *Chris* forms *Chrises*.

e424 **The Plurals Spelling Rule** Some singular nouns do not change spellings when forming plurals. **Examples:** *aircraft, bison, deer, moose, salmon, sheep, swine, fish, and trout*.

e425 **The _dge Spelling Rule** Spell a /j/ that ends a syllable with “_dge,” if it follows a short vowel sound. Spell a /j/ that ends a syllable with “_ge,” if it does not follow a short vowel sound. An ending /j/ sound can also be spelled with a *d*. **Examples:** *graduation, education, and grandeur*

e426 **The _oy Spelling Rule** Spell *oy* at the end of syllables (*joyful*) and *oi* elsewhere (*ointment, point*). The words *gargoyle* and *foible* are the most common exceptions.

e427 **Starting /k/ Spelling Rule** The starting /k/ sound is spelled *k* before *e* and *i*, but *c* before *o*, *u*, and *a*. **Examples:** Ken kisses Coco in a custom car. The Greek spelling for the starting /k/ sound is “ch.” Examples: *chorus* and *chaos*.

e428 **The /ch/ Spelling Rule** Spell the /ch/ sound as “_tch” following short vowels in one-syllable words. Other vowels signal the *ch* spelling. There are a few exceptions to this rule: *attach, much, rich, such, sandwich, touch, and which*.

e429 **The /k/ “ch” Spelling Rule** The Greek spelling for the starting /k/ sound is “ch.” **Examples:** *chorus* and *chaos*.

e430 **The l, f, s, and z Spelling Rule** Usually double the *l, f, s,* or *z* after short vowels. Exceptions to this rule: *yes, quiz, plus, if, this, bus, gas, us*.

e431 **The all, till, and full Spelling Rule** For syllables ending in *all, till,* and *full,* usually drop the *l* when adding on another syllable. Exceptions to this rule: *fullback* and *fullness*.

e432 **Ending /k/ Sound Spelling Rule** For /k/ sounds at the end of syllables, spell *c* if the syllable is unaccented (*ba-sic*), but spell *ck* if the syllable is accented (*kick-ing*). Exceptions to this rule: *stucco, occupy, and hiccups*.

e433 **The _ough Spelling Rule** The __ *ough* spelling can have the short *o*, long *o, oo* as in *fool*, or short *u* sound. Less often, the __ *ough* spelling can also have the /ow/ as in *cow* sound. **Examples:** *bough* and *plough*.

e434 **British-American Spelling Rules** The British often spell the /er/ as “_re” (*theatre, centre*), while Americans often spell the /er/ as “_er” (*theater, center*).

e435 **British-American Spelling Rules** The British often spell the /z/ as *s* (*organisation, realisation*), while Americans often spell the /z/ as *z* (*organization, realization*).

e436 **Typographical Error** Spelling error is due to mistyping, writing carelessness, or letter reversal. Proofreading reflects work ethic. Always run spell check if word processed. Read a sentence backwards to isolate written spelling errors.

e437 **Numbers** For numbers zero through nine, write out numbers. For 10 and thereafter, use numbers. Keep the same format, in either written or numerical form, within the same paragraph.

e438 **Close Gap** These two words should be combined as a simple compound word or as a hyphenated word. Use hyphens to join words that are necessarily related, but are not compound words. Don’t capitalize the letter following the hyphen.