Essay e-Comments App

The Essay e-Comments App provides a common language of writing instruction and discourse for teachers and students. With this download all 438 writing tips are added to the Autocorrect function of Microsoft Word®. 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.

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.

In addition to the Essay e-Comments App, teachers will receive the handy Quick Reference Guide and How to Use and Add-in Essay e-Comments.

Curricula Designed to Teach the Essay e-Comments Content

The Essay e-Comments have been derived from the following comprehensive curricula: *Teaching Essay Strategies*, *Teaching Spelling and Vocabulary*, *Teaching Grammar and Mechanics*, and our latest *Teaching the Language Strand (of the Common Core State Standards)*. Each curriculum uses the same language of instruction as found in the Essay e-Comments App.

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 of 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 **F**act, **E**xample, **S**tatistic, **C**omparison, Quote from an **A**uthority, **L**ogic, **E**xperience, or **C**ounter-Argument/**R**efutation. **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 **F**act, **E**xample, **S**tatistic, **C**omparison, Quote from an **A**uthority, **L**ogic, **E**xperience, or **C**ounter-Argument/**R**efutation. **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 **F**act, **E**xample, **S**tatistic, **C**omparison, Quote from an **A**uthority, **L**ogic, **E**xperience, or **C**ounter-Argument/**R**efutation. **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 **F**act, **E**xample, **S**tatistic, **C**omparison, Quote from an **A**uthority, **L**ogic, **E**xperience, or **C**ounter-Argument/**R**efutation. **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 **G**eneralization, **Q**uestion for Further Study, Statement of **S**ignificance, **A**pplication, Argument **L**imitations, **E**mphasis of Key Point, **S**ummary Statement, or **C**all to Action. **GQ SALE SC**

e48 Needs a Different Conclusion Strategy Use a variety of conclusion strategies. Add a **G**eneralization, **Q**uestion for Further Study, Statement of **S**ignificance, **A**pplication, Argument **L**imitations, **E**mphasis of Key Point, **S**ummary Statement, or **C**all 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 Colombia: 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 Colombia: 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

e136 **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).

e137 **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).

e138 **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.

e139 **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.

e140 **Concrete Noun** A concrete noun can be perceived by the senses. **Examples:** My copy of the *Sacramento Bee* is on the *desk*.

e141 **Abstract Noun** An abstract noun cannot be perceived by the senses. **Examples:** *Judaism* has been described as a religion of *peace* and *love*.

e142 **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.

e143 **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.

e144 **Gerund** A gerund is an _____*ing* verb that is used as a noun. **Examples:** *Driving* has become a necessary skill these days.

e145 **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.

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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.

e186 **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.

e187 **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.

e188 **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.

e189 **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.

e190 **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.

e191 **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.

e192 **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.

e193 **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*.

e194 **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.

e195 **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 <u>s</u> 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 <u>s</u> 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 it 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 to study 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 <u>New Yorker Magazine</u>?

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 <u>The Beginning</u>.

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 <u>The Iliad</u>.

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 *Clumbsy 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 s̲. **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 s̲ having a /z/ sound, place an apostrophe, then an s̲, 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 s̲ 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 s̲, place the apostrophe after the s̲. If the singular and plural forms are spelled differently, place the apostrophe before the s̲. **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 s̲, 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.

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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. **Examples:** 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)*.

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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-si*c*), but spell *ck* if the syllable is accented (ki*ck*-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.