

With Pen in Hand...



Becoming a Better Writer

Claude Lafie Crum

*With Pen
in Hand...
Becoming a Better Writer*



Dr. Claude Lafie Crum



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Introduction

The goal of this book is to help you become a better writer. Grammar is an uncertain subject, full of inconsistencies. Just when you think you understand a grammatical rule, you learn about several exceptions to the rule. Then you learn that there are exceptions to the exceptions. So, the rule you thought you had so clearly mastered fades into a mist of uncertainty.

If learning grammar has ever left you feeling frustration like this, *Becoming a Better Writer* is the book for you. The intricacies of grammar are broken down into twenty short, easy lessons. We only explore the basics of grammar in this book, only those principles and rules you need to know to become a better writer. In addressing the basics, we'll ignore all those vague rules and countless exceptions that can be so frustrating—you don't need to know most of that stuff anyways.

Becoming a Better Writer is designed to lead you through the confusing world of grammar one step at a time. With this in mind, you should work your way through this book chapter by chapter from beginning to end. The book opens with an analysis of the individual words used to form sentences. Once you've mastered this concept, you'll move on to the next step, understanding how clauses and phrases work. As you progress through the book, you'll deal with increasingly complicated grammatical concepts. Just make sure you understand the material presented in each chapter before you move on. Before you know it, you'll reach the end of the book, and you will have learned everything you need to know to improve your writing.

Almost every chapter of *Becoming a Better Writer* ends with exercises to help you practice and apply what you've just learned. Some of the exercises are easy, designed to give you confidence.

Others are more difficult, designed to challenge your understanding. Just keep in mind that you need to understand the material presented in each chapter before you move on to the next.

Mastering grammar is much easier than you might think. Simply think of learning grammar as a journey, and think of this book as a map. Turn the page when you're ready to begin your journey into the world of good writing. Bon voyage and good luck!

Part 1

Categories of Words

Nouns, Verbs, Modifiers, Connectors,
Interjections

Being able to recognize the words in a sentence is the first step to becoming a better writer. In a sentence, every word has a function. Understanding these functions takes a lot of the mystery out of writing.

There are five word categories you should be able to recognize: nouns, verbs, modifiers, connectors, and interjections. Being able to recognize how these different words work together will allow you to better understand how sentences work.

Chapter 1

Nouns

Recognizing Nouns

Nouns are people, places, or things.

It's easy to recognize people and places because you can see or touch them, but things can include activities, times, distances, or concepts, and these things aren't always as easy to recognize.

noun noun
Bowling is a popular sport. (*"Bowling" is an activity and "sport" is a concept*)

noun noun
A kilometer equals 1000 feet. (*"kilometer" and "feet" are distances*)

Math is a difficult subject. (*"Math" and "subject" are concepts*)

Spring is a colorful season. (*"spring" and "season" are times*)

Pronouns are another kind of noun. Pronouns stand in the place of other nouns by renaming them.

Terrah is a good friend. (*"Terrah" is a noun— "friend" is a noun*)

She is a good friend. (*"She" is a pronoun that stands in the place of "Terrah"*)

The dog followed Arnold to school. (*"dog" is a noun— "Arnold" is a noun— "school" is a noun*)

It followed Arnold to school. (*"It" is a pronoun that stands for "dog"*)

Aleisha, Rodney, Heather, and Natasha went to the movies after dinner. (*“Aleisha, Rodney, Heather, Natasha, movies, dinner” are nouns*)

Everyone went to the movies after dinner. (*“everyone” is a pronoun standing for “Aleisha, Rodney, Heather, Natasha”*)

Common pronouns:

he	she	we	they
them	us	him	her
everyone	everybody	anyone	anybody
one	no one	nobody	

Possessive pronouns and possessive nouns ARE NOT nouns. **A noun or pronoun that shows possession of another noun is not a noun. Instead, possessive nouns and possessive pronouns are modifiers. We’ll learn more about modifiers later.**

A **possessive noun** uses an apostrophe to show possession.

A mother’s love lasts forever. (*“mother’s” is possessive, so it is NOT a noun*)

A **possessive pronoun** also shows possession.

My head hurts. (*“my” is a possessive pronoun, so it is NOT a noun— “head” is a noun*)

Common possessive pronouns:


my	his	her	their
mine	your	yours	our


How Nouns Work

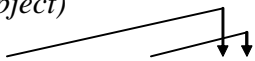
Nouns function either as 1) subjects or 2) objects in a sentence.

1) Subject

A **subject** performs the action in a sentence.


Zac kicked the ball over the fence. (*“Zac” kicked the ball—
“Zac” is the subject*)


Rainy days are so boring. (*“are” is an action—“days” is the
subject*)


Marcie and Jessica ordered a pizza. (*both “Marcie” and
“Jessica” performed the action—both “Marcie” and
“Jessica” are the subject*)


Sometimes the subject of a sentence is understood. Certain commands, for example, have an “understood you” as their subject. To find the understood subject in a sentence, simply locate the action and ask who performed it.

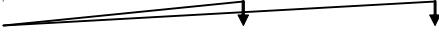
Go to the store and buy some wrapping paper. (*you is the
understood subject—[You] go to the store and buy some
wrapping paper*)

[You] Always take a flashlight trick-or-treating.

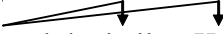
2) Object

An **object** is a noun that receives the action in a sentence. To find the object in a sentence, ask yourself who received the action or where the action happened.


Marcie and Jessica ordered a pizza. (*ordered what?—“pizza”
is an object*)



Justin ran through the sprinklers in the yard. (*ran through what? ran where?—*"sprinklers" and "yard" are objects)



Keisha passed the ball to Kristal. (*passed what? passed to who?—*"ball" and "Kristal" are objects)

All nouns are either subjects or objects. If the noun performs the action it's a subject. If the noun receives the action it's an object.

Quick Review

- **Nouns** are people, places, things, or **pronouns**.
- **Possessive nouns** and **possessive pronouns** ARE NOT nouns.
- Nouns function either as 1) **subjects** or 2) **objects** in a sentence.
 1. A **subject** performs the action in a sentence.
 2. An **object** is a noun that receives the action in a sentence.

Exercise 1

Recognizing Nouns

Make a list of the nouns found in each sentence. Remember that gerunds and pronouns are nouns.

Example: The boy threw the ball into the yard. **boy, ball, yard**

1. The congressman adjusted the microphone and cleared his throat.
2. While scientists claim that vampires do not exist, vampire legends have existed for centuries.
3. My nose started itching when he lit the cigar.
4. Alexandria wanted to get in shape, so she jogged to school this morning.
5. Fishing is a sport enjoyed by people around the world.
6. The dream started in an open meadow but quickly shifted to a dark graveyard.
7. The Eagles defeated the Bears last night.
8. Even though Hansel loved snow, she couldn't wait for spring.
9. Wendell's house overlooked the town.
10. He knew the killer was hiding in the closet.
11. Gold, silver, and platinum are valuable metals, but steel, copper, and aluminum are more useful.
12. After the long trip, everyone decided to go home early.
13. The runner circled the track.
14. Raymond went to the mall, where he met Nancy, Ted, and Cindy.
15. The dolphin leaped into the water, and the minnow darted under a rock.

Exercise 2

Identifying Subjects and Objects

Make a list of the subjects and objects in each of the following sentences. Remember that every noun, pronoun, and gerund is either a subject or an object.

Example: The peaches and the apples fell off the trees.

Subjects: **peaches, apples**

Objects: **trees**

1. Running promotes a healthy heart.
2. Scuba diving is a dangerous activity.
3. Gerald mowed the grass and trimmed the hedges.
4. Margarita and Jennifer volunteered to wash the dishes tonight.
5. Which contestant will win the prize?
6. To whom did Ronald give the keys?
7. Reginald went to the dance with Sara.
8. The newspaper was read by the young man.
9. The young man read the newspaper.
10. The newspaper is full of coupons and advertisements.
11. Eddie drove to the park alone, but Rita, Susie, and Tony met him at the game.
12. Paul joined the Navy and came home with a tattoo.
13. To produce a mule, farmers must breed a donkey and a mare.
14. Why don't farmers just breed two mules?
15. Mules are sterile, so they cannot produce offspring.

Chapter 2

Verbs

Recognizing Verbs

Verbs show action. There are three types of verbs: 1) action verbs 2) to-be verbs 3) helping verbs.

1) The most common type of verb is the **action verb**. These are easy to recognize. Run, jump, play, eat, sleep, cough, explain, determine, think, look, wonder, and know are all examples of action verbs.

Preston *ate* the hotdog.

Krissy *likes* ketchup on her hamburger.

2) **To-be verbs** (sometimes called **linking verbs**) show connections or express being.

I *am* the king of the world!

Amanda *seems* like a nice girl.

Here's a list of to-be verbs to help you learn to recognize them:

is	are	was	were
am	been	being	become
seem			

3) **Helping verbs** work with action or to-be verbs. Helping verbs usually add information to a verb, explaining when an action occurs or the necessity or certainty of an action.

Matt *will study* tomorrow. (“*study*” is an action verb, “*will*” is a helping verb explaining the certainty of the action)

Kevin *must study* for his calculus exam. (“*must*” is a helping verb explaining the necessity of the action verb “*study*”)

Common helping verbs:

have	may	should	does
must	can	will	shall

A helping verb will never be the only verb in a sentence. Helping verbs must attach themselves to action or to-be verbs.

Kayla <i>should</i> the movies.	Kayla <i>should go</i> to the movies.
Mika <i>will</i> the milk.	Mika <i>will drink</i> the milk.

Some Action Words Are Not Verbs

Action words aren't always verbs. Gerunds and infinitives are action words, but they aren't verbs.

Gerunds are action words ending “-ing” that are used as nouns.

Running is Tasia's favorite activity. (“*Running*” is an action word, but it's an activity, so it's a noun—an action word ending “-ing” that's also a noun is a gerund)

Important note: not all action words ending “-ing” are gerunds. A gerund is always a noun, but action words ending “-ing” can also be verbs. To recognize a gerund you must first decide whether the word is a noun or a verb.

Rachel's constant *crying* gave me a headache. (“*crying*” is a gerund—“*gave*” is a verb)

The baby *is crying* in the next room. (“*is crying*” is a verb)


Infinitives are verbs preceded by the word to. “To run,” “to think,” and “to throw” are examples of infinitives. Infinitives ARE NOT verbs and should not be confused with verbs. Whenever you locate an infinitive, the verb should be nearby.


Brandon decided *to move* to an apartment closer to campus. (“*decided*” is a verb, “*to move*” is an infinitive)


Brittany wanted to buy her mother a nice gift. (“wanted” is a verb and “to buy” is an infinitive)

How Verbs Work

A verb is an action word. A verb performed by a noun is a predicate. **Since a noun that performs an action is a subject, the predicate is the action performed by a subject.**


Derrick raked the leaves into a pile. (“Derrick” is the subject and “raked” is the action he performed)


Kyle is the tallest boy in class. (“Kyle” is the subject—“is” is the predicate)


The dog jumped over the fence and chased the car. (“dog” is the subject— “jumped” and “chased” form the predicate)

Because the predicate and the subject work so closely together, finding one can lead you to the other. There’s a simple test you can use to find the subject and predicate of a sentence. First, find the action performed in the sentence. This action is the predicate. Next, ask yourself who or what performed this action. The answer to this who or what question is the subject.

Quick Review

Verbs show action. There are three types of verbs: 1) **action verbs** 2) **to-be verbs** 3) **helping verbs**.

1. The most common type of verb is the **action verb**.
2. **To-be verbs** show connections or express being.
3. **Helping verbs** work with action or to-be verbs.

Gerunds (-ing verbs used as noun) and **Infinitives** (to + action word) are not verbs.

A **predicate** is a verb performed by a subject.

Exercise 3

Recognizing Verbs

Make a list of the verbs in the following sentences. Be sure to list ALL of the verb, including to-be verbs and helping verbs. DO NOT list infinitives or gerunds.

Example: The patient was visited by a heart specialist. **was visited**

1. The doctor washed his hands and slipped his fingers into the cold gloves.
2. The tornado was sighted by the cameraman, but he forgot to load film in his camera.
3. Nicholas and Jeremy decided to move to the city so they could be closer to home.
4. The knife grated across the stone eerily in the moonlight.
5. Jogging is a healthy activity, good for the heart, lungs, and muscles.
6. The dogs are running through the yard.
7. The batteries were fading, and no one brought a spare flashlight.
8. The new curfew helped to end crime in the town.
9. Mr. Simmons promised to wear a dress to school on Friday.
10. Marty whistled as he danced to the music.
11. Midnight is a strange time to mow the lawn.
12. Many miles separated Jonathan from his family.
13. When the bus failed to arrive as scheduled, Catherine's mom was worried.
14. Pete is superstitious, and he refuses to go to work without his lucky hat.
15. The horse bucked high into the air, kicking and running.

Exercise 4

Recognizing Subjects, Predicates, and Objects

In the blank before each sentence, write S if the bold word is a subject, O if the word is an object, and P if the word is a predicate.

Example: S The **monkey** escaped from the lab.

1. ___ The class has studied **anthropology** for three semesters.
2. ___ Basketball players **are** usually tall and thin while football players tend to be stocky and strong.
3. ___ When you have a **cold**, you should rest in bed until you feel better.
4. ___ From a palm tree on a beach to an oak on a mountainside, all trees use sunlight, water, and **minerals** to survive.
5. ___ Under the **tree**, the dog slept in the shade.
6. ___ **Mention** the name of George Washington and most Americans think of a larger-than-life hero.
7. ___ Although most people **associate** suits of armor with the knights of medieval Europe, leather armor has been used for thousands of years.
8. ___ **Bowling** is his favorite sport, but he likes to play volleyball when he goes to the beach.
9. ___ Under the tree, the **dog** slept in the shade.
10. ___ Alfredo and Manuel have been best friends since **kindergarten**.
11. ___ Time is on my **side**.
12. ___ The hour **is** at hand.
13. ___ The mail **was delivered** to the wrong address.
14. ___ The poll was taken by everyone on **campus**.
15. ___ The whale called out to its **young** then disappeared into the sea.

Chapter 3

Modifiers

Modifiers describe other words. Modifiers include 1) adjectives, 2) adverbs, 3) possessive nouns, 4) possessive pronouns, and 5) articles.

1) Adjectives

Adjectives modify nouns. This means adjectives can describe a noun's color, size, location, etc. Adjectives can also answer questions about a noun: which noun? what kind of noun? how many of that noun?

Justin wore the *large* hat and the *black* shoes. (“*large*” and “*black*” describe the nouns “hat” and “shoes”)

The *old* dog slept under the *nearest* tree. (“*old*” describes “dog” and “*nearest*” tells us which “tree”)


Seven of the kittens were *male*. (“*seven*” describes how many “kittens” and “*male*” describes what kind of “kittens”)

That car is *new*, and Rita is so *proud* of it. (“*that*” tells which “car,” “*new*” describes “car,” and “*proud*” describes “Rita”)

Sometimes more than one adjective can describe a single noun.


It was a *dark, stormy* night. (both *dark* and *stormy* describe night)

She was *intelligent* and *beautiful*. (“*intelligent*” and “*beautiful*” describe “She”)

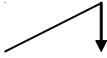


Every boy develops a crush on *some older* girl. (“*every*” describes “boy”—“*some*” and “*older*” modify girl)

Sometimes a noun can work as an adjective by describing another noun.



She refused to pay the *high property* taxes. (“*high*” is an adjective modifying “taxes”—“*property*” is a noun modifying “taxes”)



Ronald and Linda went to a *baseball* game. (“*baseball*” is a noun describing “game”)

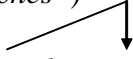
2) Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, describing actions or answering questions like how? when? where?

Savanna arrived *late*. (“*late*” modifies the verb “arrived” by describing when)

He crept into the room *silently*. (“*silently*” describes the verb “crept”)

She *always* watches the clock at quitting time. (“*always*” tells when she “watches”)



Aleisha was *secretly* angry. (“*secretly*” describes the adjective “angry”)

Important note: most adverbs end –ly. As a result, many adverbs like quickly, randomly, and finally are easy to spot. Not all words that end –ly are adverbs, however, and not all adverbs end in –ly. The only sure way to determine if a word is an adverb is to decide whether the word modifies a noun or a verb/adjective/adverb.

3) Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns modify other words by expressing ownership.

His car is black and shiny. (“*his*” describes whose car)

Heather bumped *her* head on the desk. (“*her*” explains whose head)

4) Possessive Nouns

Possessive nouns also show ownership.

Sharlee’s dog barked at the strange man. (“*Sharlee’s*” explains whose dog)

Important note: possessive nouns always use apostrophes to show ownership. Possessive pronouns never use apostrophes.

5) Articles

a, an, the

The **articles** (a, an, the) show whether a writer is referring to a general or specific noun. “A” and “an” are indefinite articles. “The” is a definite article.

The pony galloped around *the* ring. (“*the*” is a definite article referring to a specific “pony” and specific “ring”)

A snakebite can be *a* deadly injury. “*a*” is an indefinite article referring to a “snakebite” and an “injury” in general)

Use “a” and “an” with nouns your audience is unfamiliar with. Use “the” with nouns your audience is familiar with.

Use “the” with all specific nouns. Use “a” with unfamiliar nouns beginning with a consonant. Use “an” with unfamiliar or general nouns beginning with a vowel.

A dog is good company. (“dog” begins with a consonant)

An apple is a nutritious snack. (apple begins with a vowel)

Quick Review

- **Modifiers** describe other words. Modifiers include **1) adjectives, 2) adverbs, 3) possessive nouns, 4) possessive pronouns, and 5) articles.**
 - 1. Adjectives** modify nouns.
 - 2. Adverbs** modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, describing actions or answering questions like how? when? where?
 - 3. Possessive pronouns** modify other words by expressing ownership.
 - 4. Possessive nouns** also show ownership.
 - 5. The articles** (a, an, the) show whether a writer is referring to a general or specific noun.

Exercise 5

Recognizing Modifiers

Make a list of the modifiers in each sentence.

Example: Robin's birthday party was a big surprise. **Robin's, birthday, a, big**

1. Charlie's car is parked on my lawn.
2. A dark and stormy night is a good time for a scary story.
3. Every night Justin dates a different girl.
4. Carefully, Judith crept into the dark room.
5. The bread was stale.
6. Marhall was handsome in his shirt and tie.
7. Marshall wore a handsome shirt and tie.
8. Marley and Henricks were great musicians.
9. The old man drove recklessly.
10. Eleven of the birds flew away, but one lonely bird stayed.
11. With a crisp one-dollar bill in his hand, Joey ran to the candy store.
12. With a sigh, the suspect's lawyer admitted defeat.
13. The desert is hot and dry, a bad place for inexperienced hikers.
14. My toe hurts, so my mom is taking me to the doctor.
15. Green vegetables are good for you.

Exercise 6

Identifying Subjects, Objects, Verbs, and Modifiers

In the blank before each sentence, write S if the bold word is a subject, O if the word is an object, P if the word is a predicate, M if the word is a modifier.

Example: M The woodchuck nibbled on **the** grass.

1. Thirteen **black** cats sat on the old lady's porch.
2. The mayor recognized his **mistake**.
3. The couple decided to move out of town to escape the high **property** costs.
4. Normally, the car **ride** would have made Thomas sick.
5. Catching mice was **fun** for the cat.
6. To catch the elusive **butterfly**, the naturalist used a net and an artificial flower.
7. Running through the sprinklers, the **children** laughed and cheered.
8. The brothers shared their **new** toys.
9. The **beautiful** poem was recited by the nervous little boy.
10. The home team won the game by **two** points.
11. **Several** dogs played quietly in the yard.
12. His gear included an accurate compass, a **detailed** map, and a sharp knife.
13. The big monkey snatched the **last** banana from the little monkey.
14. Fried chicken and mashed potatoes **are** his favorite foods.
15. The **cross-eyed** mule fell awkwardly into the pond.

Chapter 4

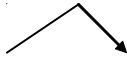
Connectors and Interjections

Connectors

Connectors join words, ideas, and sentence elements together. There are two kinds of connectors: 1) prepositions and 2) conjunctions.

1) Prepositions

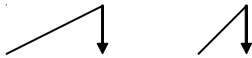
A **preposition** connects a noun to the rest of a sentence. A preposition is usually followed by at least one noun. This noun is referred to as the object of the preposition. The preposition indicates the relationship between the noun (object of the preposition) and the rest of the sentence.



The bird flew *over* the *fence*. (“*over*” is a preposition— “*fence*” is the object of the preposition— “*over*” shows the relationship between “*fence*” and the subject “*bird*”)



Amy drove *to* the *store*. (“*to*” is a preposition and “*store*” is the object of the preposition)



Amanda went *to* the *movies* *with* *us*. (“*to*” shows relationship of “*movie*” and “*with*” shows relationship of “*us*”— “*us*” and “*movie*” are objects of prepositions)

A good test to determine if a word is a preposition is to ask yourself if the word could show the position of an airplane in relation to a cloud: An airplane can fly *to* a cloud, fly *from* a cloud, fly *through*, *above*, *under*, *beside*, *next to*, *below*, *after* a cloud. The airplane

test works most but not all of the time. Learning to find the object of the preposition can help you to locate tricky prepositions.

The word “to” is a preposition, but remember that the word “to” is NOT a preposition when it comes before a verb. “To + verb” is an infinitive.

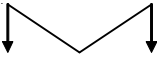
Here’s a list of common prepositions not easily recognized by using the airplane test:

like	since	until	about
despite	except	past	throughout
off	concerning	except	off
for	during		

2) Conjunctions

There are two important types of conjunctions: coordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions.

- **Coordinating conjunctions** link words or groups of words together.



Keisha *and* Kaylan are best friends. (“*and*” links the nouns “Keisha” and “Kaylan”)



Rodney is tall *but* strong. (“*but*” links the adjectives “tall” and “strong”)



Caitlin neither cheats *nor* steals. (“*nor* links the verbs “cheats” and “steals”)

Because she was such a talented dancer, *and* since she was so tall, the coach thought Kristal would be good at basketball. (“*and*” links “Because she was such a talented dancer” and “since she was so tall”)

The coordinating conjunctions are easy to remember because there are only seven of them.

for	and	nor	but
or	yet	so	

There's even an acronym to help you memorize them. Just spell FANBOYS:

For **A**nd **N**or **B**ut **O**r **Y**et **S**o

- **Subordinating Conjunctions** make complete thoughts incomplete. Subordinating conjunctions connect ideas by forcing complete thoughts to require explanations. Because explanations must be added, the new information must be connected. Thus, subordinating conjunctions are connectors.

Steven went to the barbershop. (*complete thought*)
Before Steven went to the barbershop . . . (“*Before*” is a subordinating conjunction which creates an incomplete thought—we don’t know what happened before)

Hager washed his car in the driveway. (*complete thought*)
Because Hager washed his car in the driveway . . . (“*Because*” is a subordinating conjunction which creates an incomplete thought)

Prepositions often work as subordinating conjunctions. Here's a list of common subordinating conjunctions:

because	even though	since
though	while	as
unless	when	

Interjections

Interjections are words with no grammatical connection to the rest of the sentence. Interjections convey emotions, serving the same purpose that facial expressions, tone of voice, and hand gestures serve in speech.

Wow! You must be joking. (“Wow” is an interjection that conveys surprise or disbelief)

Oh, I didn’t know you were coming to dinner. (Oh is an interjection that conveys mild surprise)

In addition to interjections, transitory words like therefore, furthermore, likewise, and however don’t have any grammatical connection to the rest of the sentence. Instead, these transitory words help to establish meaning between sentences.

Quick Review

Connectors join words, ideas, and sentence elements together. There are two kinds of connectors: **1) prepositions** and **2) conjunctions**.

1. **Prepositions** show the relationship between a noun and the rest of a sentence.

2. There are two important types of conjunctions:

coordinating conjunctions and **subordinating conjunctions**.

- **Coordinating conjunctions (FANBOYS)** link words and groups of words together.
- **Subordinating Conjunctions** make complete thoughts incomplete.

Interjections are words with no grammatical connection to the rest of the sentence.

Exercise 7

Recognizing Connectors

Make a list of the connectors in the following sentences.

Example: The beans and turnips grew large because of the rain. **and, because, of**

1. Miranda and Michelle went to the dance alone.
2. The fox crept down into the barnyard, and the dog under the porch growled.
3. When the woman couldn't find her son, she asked the guard for help.
4. The guard called the police, and the police spent two hours looking for the boy.
5. They searched in the toy section and in the electronics section.
6. They were ready to panic when they found him sleeping on a bed in the furniture department.
7. Bluegill and sunfish are easy to catch.
8. Because catfish have a strong sense of smell, they are easily caught at night.
9. Oh, I forgot to bring my flashlight.
10. Harold stayed home because he had a cold.
11. At the antique store, Janice bought a lamp and a chest.
12. Friends are very important, for friendship is priceless.
13. The brothers decided to ride their bikes to the lake.
14. The lawyer wore a lampshade on his head.
15. Manuel added carrots and celery and peppers to the soup.

Exercise 8

Identifying Subjects, Objects, Verbs, Modifiers, Connectors, and Interjections

In the blank before each sentence, write S if the bold word is a subject, O if the word is an object, P if the word is a predicate, M if the word is a modifier, C if the word is a connector, and I if the word is an interjection.

Example: C The biscuits are brown **and** flaky.

1. The chicken danced on the hot **tin** roof.
2. Astronauts must endure years **of** training.
3. **Allen's** mother told him to wait an hour before he got into the pool.
4. The rabbit darted **into** the hole before the hunter could raise his gun.
5. The bandits swarmed **onto** the train, but the guard had his eye on them.
6. They searched in the **luggage** car and in the dining car, but they could not find the gold.
7. Finally, the **robbers** scurried from the train and returned to their hideout.
8. The **average** human head weighs eight pounds.
9. The kitten chased the grasshopper through **the** tall grass.
10. The mongoose and the snake **are** natural enemies.
11. Because bats only come out at night, they scare **many** people.
12. While Tony rummaged **through** the messy closet, Randy searched in the cluttered basement.
13. An **eight-year-old** boy is too young to own a BB gun.
14. Paul Bunyon tested the ice on the river while **his** ox watched
15. ~~Scrape the floor~~ **Scrape the floor** in Mrs. **Milly's** ghost walks these halls.

Exercise 9

Definitions

Match each definition below with a term from the list. Write the letter of the term in the blank before the correct definition. Each letter will be used only once.

- | | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|
| A. noun | B. pronoun | C. subject |
| D. object | E. verb | F. to-be verb |
| G. helping verb | H. predicate | I. infinitive |
| J. gerund | K. article | L. possessive noun |
| M. possessive pronoun | N. adjective | O. adverb |
| P. subordinating conjunction | Q. coordinating conjunction | |
| R. interjection | S. modifier | T. preposition |

- _____ 1. connects ideas, FANBOYS
- _____ 2. modifies a noun
- _____ 3. person, place, or thing
- _____ 4. a, an, the
- _____ 5. a word or phrase with no grammatical connection to the rest of the sentence.
- _____ 6. a word that connects a noun to the rest of a sentence
- _____ 7. verbs that show connections or express being
- _____ 8. modifies a verb or adjective
- _____ 9. words that stand in the place of nouns
- _____ 10. to + verb
- _____ 11. a noun that performs an action
- _____ 12. -ing action word that works as a noun
- _____ 13. action word
- _____ 14. a noun that receives an action instead of doing an action
- _____ 15. a person, place, or thing that owns or possesses something
- _____ 16. an action performed by a subject
- _____ 17. a word that makes a complete thought incomplete
- _____ 18. its, your, my, mine, his, hers
- _____ 19. adverbs, adjectives, possessive pronouns, possessive nouns
- _____ 20. words that work with action or to-be verbs, could, should, will, may, might

Exercise 10

Identifying Parts of Speech

In the blank at the beginning of each sentence, identify each boldfaced word(s) by writing the letter of the correct term from the list in the blank. Some letters may be used more than once.

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|
| A. pronoun | B. subject | C. object |
| D. to-be verb | E. helping verb | F. predicate |
| G. infinitive | H. gerund | I. article |
| J. possessive noun | K. possessive pronoun | L. adjective |
| M. adverb | N. preposition | O. subordinating conjunction |
| P. coordinating conjunction | | Q. interjection |

- _____ 1. The doctor washed his hands **and** slipped his fingers into the cold gloves.
- _____ 2. The tornado was sighted by the cameraman, but he forgot **to load** film in his camera.
- _____ 3. Nicholas and Jeremy decided to move to the city so **they** could be closer to home.
- _____ 4. The knife grated across the stone **in** the moonlight.
- _____ 5. Jogging is a healthy activity, good for the **heart, lungs, and muscles**.
- _____ 6. **Running** is excellent exercise.
- _____ 7. The batteries **were** fading quickly, and no one brought a spare flashlight.
- _____ 8. The soldiers marched **to** the music of the band.
- _____ 9. **Oops**, I forgot about the test tomorrow.
- _____ 10. Marty whistled **as** he danced to the music.
- _____ 11. Midnight is a **strange** time to mow the lawn.
- _____ 12. **Many** miles separated Jonathan from his family.
- _____ 13. When the bus failed to arrive as scheduled, **Catherine's** mom was worried.
- _____ 14. Pete is superstitious, and he refuses to go to work without **his** lucky hat.
- _____ 15. The horse **bucked** high into the air, kicking and running.
- _____ 16. The congressman adjusted **the** microphone and cleared his throat.
- _____ 17. **While** scientists claim that vampires do not exist, vampire legends have existed for centuries.
- _____ 18. My nose started itching when **he** lit his cigar.
- _____ 19. Alexandria wanted to get in shape, **so** she jogged to school this morning.
- _____ 20. Fishing is a sport enjoyed **by** people around the world.

Part 2

Forming Sentences

To become a better writer, you must first learn to recognize complete sentences. The first mistake many writers make is thinking of a sentence as nothing more than a group of words beginning with a capital letter and ending with a period. On the contrary, sentences are made up of word groups called clauses and phrases. Understanding how phrases and clauses work together to form sentences can help insure that you will avoid grammar errors and improve your writing.

Chapter 5

Clauses and Phrases

Sentences are formed by word groups called clauses and phrases.

Clauses

A **clause** is a group of related words containing BOTH a subject AND a predicate.

subject predicate

Rachel found her ring. (*“Rachel” is a subject and “found” is a verb*)

There are two types of clauses: 1) independent and 2) dependent.

1) An **independent clause** is a complete unit of thought containing a subject and a predicate. The group of words must make sense and relate a complete idea. An independent clause is a sentence.

subject predicate

Leah wrote a letter to Brian. (*independent clause relates a complete thought*)

subject predicate

John slept. (*this is a complete thought, an independent clause, and a complete sentence*)

independent clause

independent clause

subject predicate

subject predicate

The president called his secretary, but she had gone home for the day.

Don't forget that some clauses use an “understood you” as a subject. These clauses are independent.

subject predicate

[You] Close that door.

2) A **dependent clause** is an incomplete unit of thought containing both a subject and a predicate. A dependent clause does not relate a complete idea, so it cannot stand alone as a sentence.

subject predicate
Brandi risked. (*risked what?—dependent clause is not a complete thought*)

subject predicate
Audra listened to. (*listened to what?—dependent clause is not a complete thought*)

subject predicate
When Catlyn entered the room. (*then what?—incomplete thought=dependent clause*)

dependent clause	independent clause
subject predicate	subject predicate

After Jermaine washed the car, he used a brush to scrub the wheels. (*“After Jermaine washed the car”—then what? incomplete thought*)

Phrases

A **phrase** is a group of words that DOES NOT contain BOTH a subject and a predicate. A phrase might contain either a noun or a verb, but a phrase DOES NOT contain a noun that performs the action of the verb. A phrase cannot stand alone as a sentence.

noun
The grass under the tree. (*“The grass under the tree” does not contain a verb—this is a phrase*)

verb
Driving in the rain. (*“Driving in the rain” contains no subject*)

independent clause	phrase
subject predicate	noun

The mayor called a special meeting in the city hall building.

A Quick Review

- A **clause** is a word group that contains both a subject and a verb. There are two types of clauses: independent and dependent.
 - An **independent clause** is a complete unit of thought containing a subject and a predicate.
 - A **dependent clause** is an incomplete unit of thought containing both a subject and a predicate.
- A **phrase** is a group of words that DOES NOT contain both a subject and a verb.

Exercise 11

Identifying Independent Clauses, Dependent Clauses, and Phrases

In the space provided after each sentence, identify the bold portion of text as a dependent clause, an independent clause or a phrase.

1. The male lion is **the most dangerous animal on the African plains.**_____
2. Because lions eat only meat, **they must kill their prey.**

3. **Because lions eat only meat,** they must kill their prey.

4. **Lions have long claws, sharp teeth, and powerful jaws.**_____
5. **Most lions found in zoos were born in captivity,** but even tame lions can be deadly._____
6. When humans live close to wild lions, **deadly encounters are certain to occur.**_____
7. Despite the fear lions inspire **in people around the world,** these noble animals deserve respect for their power and beauty._____
8. Despite the fear lions inspire in people around the world, **these noble animals deserve respect** for their power and beauty._____
9. **Despite the fear lions inspire in people around the world,** these noble animals deserve respect for their power and beauty._____
10. Despite the fear lions inspire in people around the world, these noble animals deserve respect **for their power and beauty.**_____

Exercise 12

Identifying Independent Clauses, Dependent Clauses, and Phrases

In the space provided after each sentence, identify the bold portion of text as a dependent clause, an independent clause or a phrase.

1. Basketball players are usually tall and thin **while football players tend to be stocky and strong.**_____
2. **When you have a cold,** you should rest in bed until you feel better._____
3. **From a palm tree on a beach to an oak on a mountainside,** all trees use sunlight, water, and minerals to survive.

4. **Although most people associate suits of armor with the knights of medieval Europe,** leather armor has been used for thousands of years._____
5. Bowling is his favorite sport, but he likes to play volleyball **when he goes to the beach.**_____
6. Bowling is his favorite sport, but **he likes to play volleyball** when he goes to the beach._____
7. **Bowling is his favorite sport,** but he likes to play volleyball when he goes to the beach._____
8. The mail was delivered **to the wrong address.**

9. **The mail was delivered** to the wrong address.

10. The whale called out to its young and **disappeared into the sea.**_____

Chapter 6

Beyond Basic Sentences

Now that you understand how to recognize dependent clauses, independent clauses, and phrases, it's time to learn how they work together to form long, complicated sentences.

The first thing you need to keep in mind is that all sentences must have at least one independent clause.

subject predicate

Jordan washed his car in the driveway. (*“Jordan washed his car” is an independent clause— “in the driveway” is a phrase*)

independent clause

phrase

After dieting for two weeks, Rita gained eight pounds. (*“after dieting for two weeks” is a phrase— “Rita gained eight pounds” is an independent clause*)

subject predicate

dependent clause

independent clause

phrase

Because Rodney was so short, he couldn't find a date for the prom. (*“Because Rodney is so short” is a dependent clause— “he couldn't find a date for the prom” is an independent clause*)

subject predicate

subject predicate

independent clause

phrase

phrase

The crows gathered at the edge of the cornfield, ready to pounce at any moment.

Remember that every sentence must have at least one independent clause, but some sentences can have two or more independent clauses.

independent clause

independent clause

The ball rolled down the hill, and it finally settled in the grass.

A sentence is like a Christmas tree. An independent clause is the tree, and dependent clauses and phrases are like ornaments. It's pretty simple: a sentence is nothing more than an independent clause with phrases and dependent clauses attached to it.

Quick Review

- Every sentence must have an independent clause
- Phrases and dependent clauses can attach to an independent clause to form long, complicated sentences

Exercise 13

Identifying Independent Clauses

Underline the independent clause in the following sentences. Underline only the independent clause. DO NOT underline any part of any phrase or dependent clause. **Example:** When he arrived, everyone started laughing.

1. Some of the boys stayed after school, hoping to earn extra money.
2. When the rains finally came, the drought had already killed the crops.
3. Maurice asked the police officer for help, because he needed a tow truck.
4. The ducks waddled across the road and splashed into the water.
5. Though he considered Jamie his friend, Matt didn't invite her to the party.
6. While the other children played basketball, Maria painted a picture.
7. Unless you have other plans, you can join us.
8. Rita returned the cosmetics since she never wore makeup.
9. The horse kicked the man after he hit the horse with a whip.
10. To improve his time, the runner trained hard for two weeks.
11. While scientists claim that vampires do not exist, vampire legends have existed for centuries.
12. After the long trip, everyone decided to go home early.
13. When the weather warmed, the frogs in the pond croaked.
14. Since he had a cold, Marvin's mother wouldn't let him play in the snow.
15. Most of the boys like to pitch horseshoes, while most of the girls would rather play tag.

Exercise 14

Combining Independent Clauses, Dependent Clauses, and Phrases

In each exercise below, combine the independent clauses, dependent clauses, and phrases to form ONE sentence. You must use all clauses and phrases in your sentences without leaving any words out. You may rearrange the phrases and clauses any way you like.

1. On the roof. When the apple fell. Roland awoke with a fright.
2. Because the car was used. Roland asked a mechanic to inspect it. Before he bought it.
3. Alan asked the tutor for help. As algebra was his worst subject.
4. The mother bear ran to help. When the cub howled in pain.
5. Ice formed on the lake. When the temperature dipped below freezing.

Chapter 7

Sentence Errors

Now that you can recognize the parts of a sentence, it's time to learn about sentence errors. **Believe it or not, there are only four sentence errors: 1) the fragment, 2) the run-on sentence, 3) the comma splice, and 4) the fused sentence.** All four of these mistakes can be avoided if you can recognize independent clauses, dependent clauses, and phrases.

1) Fragment

A **fragment** occurs when a phrase or dependent clause stands alone as a complete sentence. Remember that every sentence must have an independent clause.

Fragment: When a young lady reaches sixteen years of age. (*then what?—an independent clause must be a complete thought*)

Fragment: Over the meadow and through the woods. (*no subject or predicate*)

Fragment: Although Matt is older than Megan. (*then what?*)

Fragment: The best team of all time. (*no predicate*)

To correct a fragment, simply make sure every sentence has a subject, a predicate, and relates a complete thought.

Fragment: Down across the creek and into the valley. (*no subject or predicate*)

Correct: The ball rolled down across the creek and into the valley.


Don't forget that some sentences use an "understood you" as the subject. These sentences usually begin with a verb and relate simple commands.

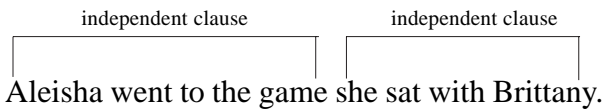
[You] Try a mushroom bacon burger today.

2) Run-on

A **run-on** occurs when two independent clauses (complete sentences) are joined with no punctuation. In other words, the sentence “runs on” on through a period.

Run-on:  Jordan shot from the corner Preston rebounded under the goal.

Run-on:  Kevin walked to the store Whitney rode her bike.

Run-on:  Aleisha went to the game she sat with Brittany.

Run-on sentences can be corrected four different ways.

Run-on: Shannon threw a rock at the dog the rock broke a window.

1. Use a period between the independent clauses.
Shannon threw a rock at the dog. The rock broke a window.
2. Use a semicolon between the independent clauses. (A semicolon should only be used to connect two related sentences, sentences about the same action or the same subject.)
Shannon threw a rock at the dog; the rock broke a window.
3. Use a comma and a coordinating conjunction (remember the FANBOYS) between the independent clauses. (You must use a comma and a FANBOYS to join two independent clauses.)
Shannon threw a rock at the dog, *but* the rock broke a window.
4. Make one of the independent clauses dependent.
Shannon threw a rock at the dog, breaking a window.

Shannon threw a rock at the dog and broke a window.

When Shannon threw a rock at the dog, the rock broke a window.

While throwing a rock at the dog, Shannon broke the window.

Here's another run-on and possibilities for correcting it:

Run-on: Joe moved to Hollywood he dreamed of becoming a movie star.

Correct: Joe moved to Hollywood. He dreamed of becoming a movie star.

Correct: Joe moved to Hollywood; he dreamed of becoming a movie star.

Correct: Joe moved to Hollywood, and he dreamed of becoming a movie star.

Correct: Joe moved to Hollywood, dreamed of becoming a movie star.

Correct: Joe moved to Hollywood because he dreamed of becoming a movie star.

3) Comma Splice

A **comma splice** occurs when two independent clauses (complete sentences) are joined with just a comma. Without a coordinating conjunction, a comma cannot join two independent clauses.

independent clause independent clause

┌──────────────────────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐

Comma splice: Aleisha was worried about her grade, she studied all night.

Three independent clauses can be joined with commas if the three clauses work together to form a series.

independent clause independent clause independent clause

┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────┐

Matt brought the cake, Tony brought the ice cream, and Ron brought the soda.

A comma splice can be corrected by the same four methods of correcting run-ons we listed earlier.

Comma splice: Steven dealt the cards, he dealt one card too many.

Correct: Steven dealt the cards. He dealt one card too many. (*period*)

Correct: Steven dealt the cards; he dealt one card too many. (*semicolon*)

Correct: Steven dealt the cards, but he dealt one card too many. (*comma + FANBOYS*)

Correct: Steven dealt the cards but dealt one card too many. (*making an independent clause dependent by removing a subject*)

4) Fused Sentence

A **fused sentence** occurs when two independent clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction with no comma.

independent clause independent clause

┌──────────────────────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────────────────────┐

The crowd gathered outside the capitol and they waited for Elvis to appear.

independent clause independent clause

┌──────────────────────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────────────────────┐

Jesco appeared instead so the crowd was very disappointed.

You can correct a fused sentence by using one of the four methods used to correct run-ons and comma splices.

Fused sentence: The kitten crept across the floor and it pounced on the ball.

Correct: The kitten crept across the floor. It pounced on the ball. (*period*)

Correct: The kitten crept across the floor; it pounced on the ball. (*semicolon*)

Correct: The kitten crept across the floor, and it pounced on the ball. (*comma + FANBOYS*)

Correct: The kitten crept across the floor and pounced on the ball.
(making an independent clause dependent by removing subject)

Quick Review

There are four sentence errors:

- A **fragment** occurs when a phrase or dependent clause stands alone as a complete sentence.
- A **run-on** occurs when two independent clauses (complete sentences) are joined with no punctuation.
- A **comma splice** occurs when two independent clauses (complete sentences) are joined with just a comma.
- A **fused sentence** occurs when two independent clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction with no comma.

Run-ons, comma splices and fused sentences can be corrected by using one of four methods:

1. Use a period between the independent clauses.
2. Use a semicolon between the independent clauses.
3. Use a comma and a coordinating conjunction (remember the FANBOYS) between the independent clauses.
4. Make one of the independent clauses dependent.

Exercise 15

Recognizing Sentence Errors

In the space after each sentence, write CS if the sentence is a comma splice, R-O if it is a run-on, FRAG if it is a fragment, FS if it is a fused sentence, and CORRECT if it is correct.

1. *The Little Rascals* made Buckwheat and Alfalfa household names in the 1930s. _____
2. A great car for the beginning driver because of its safety features. _____
3. When the sheriff's gun jammed, the outlaws ran for cover. _____
4. Since spring, Marcie has been living in Idaho so she found a job in Boise. _____
5. Kevin cleaned the fish, Stephen started the campfire, and Ryan pitched the tent. _____
6. Brian called Stephanie's house but she was out with Tony. _____
7. The average eagle's wingspan is six feet the average for a buzzard can reach nine feet. _____
8. Responsive steering, good handling, and a comfortable interior with lots of features. _____
9. The brook trout is a shy fish, the rainbow trout is an aggressive feeder. _____
10. Arnie placed birdfeeders in his yard but squirrels robbed them. _____

Exercise 16

Recognizing Fragments

Read the following passages. In the space before each sentence, write F if the sentence is a fragment and C if the sentence is correct.

- 1) _____ Isaac Newton is widely recognized as the discoverer of gravity.
- 2) _____ Also as a leading scientist in light research. 3) _____ Few people know, however, that he was also interested in religion. 4) _____ Even going as far as collecting bibles. 5) _____ Fewer people still know that Newton was an alchemist. 6) _____ Interested primarily in the ancient art of turning base metals into gold. 7) _____ Newton even predicted the apocalypse. 8) _____ Insisting that the world would end in the year 2060. 9) _____ Today, Newton's scientific discoveries are celebrated around the world. 10) _____ However, few people know about Newton's less scientific side.

- 1) _____ By flexing all the way to the middle. 2) _____ Graphite rods produce plenty of power. 3) _____ Great for landing really big fish in tight quarters. 4) _____ Graphite rods are easy to use. 5) _____ The perfect rod for the beginner or the professional. 6) _____ All Caney Creek Rods feature graphite construction. 7) _____ The same graphite used in professional grade golf clubs and space age aircraft. 8) _____ Stainless steel hardware, cork handles, and a graphite core. 9) _____ These features are found on rods costing hundreds of dollars more. 10) _____ Try a Caney Creek Rod today.

Exercise 17

Recognizing Sentence Errors

Write X in the blank before each sentence containing a sentence error.
Write C in the blank if the sentence is correct.

Example: C Rabbits love carrots, lettuce, and peas.

1. _____ Snakes are classified as reptiles but some snakes spend their entire lives in water.

2. _____ The car was a rolling rust bucket, it was all Tim could afford.

3. _____ Weight lifting is good exercise because it strengthens the bones, however, osteoporosis cripples many elderly people in the United States.

4. _____ Some children enjoy playing outside, and other children prefer to stay inside playing video games.

5. _____ Tornadoes can ravage mobile home parks, and strong tornadoes can even move houses, but the worst storms can destroy concrete bridges.

Exercise 18

Recognizing Sentence Errors

Write X in the blank before each sentence containing a sentence error.
Write C in the blank if the sentence is correct.

1. ____ The researchers tried to establish a connection between violent video games and violent behavior in children but the research showed that video game violence had no effect on children.

2. ____ Some of the world's best cheese is found in Wisconsin, some dairy farmers there have been making cheese for generations.

3. ____ The campers hiked to the lake, then went for a swim before lunch.

4. ____ The old man smoked his pipe while he made a sandwich, and the bread was smeared black with ashes.

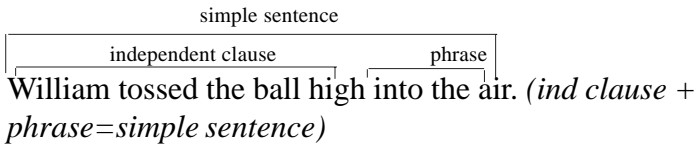
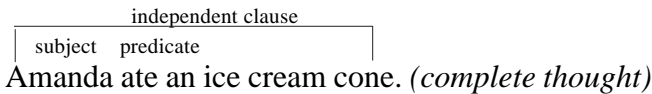
5. ____ The guitar player lost a finger in a chainsaw accident, but he learned to play despite his injury.

Chapter 8

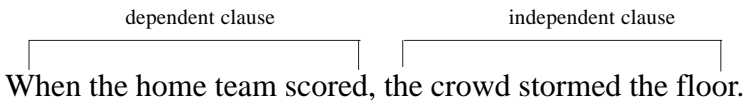
Sentence Types

Now it's time to use what we've learned about independent clauses, dependent clauses and phrases to build the four types of sentences: 1) the simple sentence, 2) the complex sentence, 3) the compound sentence, and 4) the compound, complex sentence.

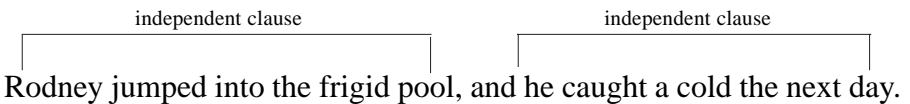
1) A **simple sentence** is an independent clause, a group of words that contains both a subject and a predicate and works together to form a complete thought. A simple sentence may contain one or more phrases attached to an independent clause, but simple sentences DO NOT contain dependent clauses.



2) A **complex sentence** is composed of an independent clause and a dependent clause.



3) A **compound sentence** is formed when two independent clauses are joined.



4) A **compound, complex sentence** is composed of a compound sentence (two independent clauses) connected to a dependent clause.

dependent clause

independent clause

When Mallory threw Kim into the lake, Krista pushed Chad into the water,

independent clause

so Krista and Chad both had to swim to shore.

Quick Review

There are four types of sentences:

- A **simple sentence** is an independent clause.
- A **complex sentence** is composed of an independent clause and a dependent clause.
- A **compound sentence** is formed when two independent clauses are joined.
- A **compound, complex sentence** is composed of a compound sentence (two independent clauses) connected to a dependent clause.

Exercise 19

Recognizing Types of Sentences

In the space after each sentence, write SIMPLE if the sentence is a simple sentence, COMPOUND if it is a compound sentence, COMPLEX if it is a complex sentence, and COMPOUND, COMPLEX if it is a compound, complex sentence.

1. When the plumber arrived, the entire basement had been flooded, and the furniture was floating in the yard. _____
2. While most reptiles lay eggs, rattlesnakes give birth to live young.

3. Jeannie refused to attend the party because Tammy would be there. _____
4. The monkey threw the zookeeper's keys into the lake.

5. In the murky water, the guards searched for the keys.

6. The guards found the keys, and the zookeeper locked the cage. _____
7. The monkey was very upset, but he was eager to have his dinner, so he devoured a basket of bananas.

8. The embarrassed zookeeper considered finding another job, but he decided to keep his job at the zoo when he thought of his first job as a waiter. _____
9. After all, he liked monkeys better than people.

10. Since the incident with his keys, the zookeeper has decided to keep a spare key in his shoe. _____

Exercise 20

Definitions

Match each definition below with a term from the list. Write the letter of the term in the blank before the correct definition. Each letter will be used only once.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| A. independent clause | B. dependent clause |
| C. phrase | D. subordinating conjunction |
| E. compound sentence | F. complex sentence |
| G. compound, complex sentence | H. fragment |
| I. run-on | J. comma splice |
| K. fused sentence | L. subject |
| M. predicate | N. object |
| O. coordinating conjunction | |

- _____ 1. a noun that performs the action of a verb
- _____ 2. a connecting word used with a comma to join two independent clauses
- _____ 3. an error occurring when a dependent clause or phrase stands alone as a sentence
- _____ 4. a sentence formed by a dependent clause correctly linked to an independent clause
- _____ 5. a group of words lacking a subject or predicate
- _____ 6. the action performed by the subject
- _____ 7. an error occurring when two independent clauses are joined with a comma
- _____ 8. an incomplete thought containing both a subject and a predicate
- _____ 9. a noun that receives the action of the predicate
- _____ 10. error occurring when two independent clauses are joined only with a coordinating conjunction
- _____ 11. two or more independent clauses correctly joined to form a sentence
- _____ 12. error occurring when two or more independent clauses are joined without punctuation
- _____ 13. a dependent clause and two independent clauses correctly joined to form a sentence
- _____ 14. a complete thought containing both a subject and predicate
- _____ 15. a word that makes a complete thought incomplete

Part 3

Punctuation

You now understand how nouns, verbs, modifiers, connectors, and interjections work together to form sentences. You also know how to combine sentence elements to create long sentences and avoid sentence errors. The next step in becoming a better writer is to learn about punctuation. In this chapter you will learn how punctuation is used to clarify meaning. Knowing how and when to use punctuation is one of the most important aspects of writing.

Chapter 9

End of Sentence Punctuation

Period

A **period** is used to mark the end of a sentence that makes a statement.

Arnie fell off the horse.

A period is also used after some abbreviations.

Dr. Santiago is the chief heart specialist at Liberty Memorial Hospital.

Mrs. Dawson is my favorite teacher.

Not all abbreviations require periods. A good dictionary can help you determine if an abbreviation uses periods.

NASA
DVD
TV

NAFTA
MLA
FBI

NAACP
ACLU

Question Mark

A **question mark** is used at the end of a sentence that asks a question.

Did Arnie fall off the horse?
Where is my math book?

Be careful to recognize indirect questions. An indirect question occurs when a question is phrased as a statement. Indirect questions require periods.

Matthew asked when the game would begin.

Kyndra wanted to know how anyone could be so stupid.

Exclamation Point

An **exclamation point** shows that a statement is an exclamation. Exclamation points should be used only when a sentence makes an emphatic statement. Picture someone speaking. Now, imagine that this person is speaking normally until he or she becomes excited, waving and gesturing and raising his or her voice (not necessarily shouting, just being loud and emphatic). The loud and emphatic speech would be punctuated with an exclamation point.

“Get over here!” the angry woman shouted at the crying child.

Arnie should leave horseback riding to the experts before he gets himself killed!

Important note: Exclamation points should be used sparingly. Because they are used to show emphasis, overusing exclamation points can minimize their effect. Remember the imaginary person who started ranting and raving and gesturing wildly in the passage above? What if every sentence that person said was an emphatic shout? Consider an example from this imaginary person:

I wanted to go for a walk outside today, but it’s too hot! I don’t like hot weather! Maybe I’ll just stay inside and read a book, maybe have some ice cream! At least it’s not raining! That building is on fire! Quick, somebody call the fire department!

In this example, every sentence is emphatic, and the two sentences about the fire are no more important than the sentences about the weather or about reading a book. Exclamation points show a difference in emphasis, and when they are overused, they lose their effectiveness.

Quick Review

- A **period** is used to mark the end of a sentence that makes a statement and after some abbreviations.
- A **question mark** is used at the end of a sentence that asks a question.
- An **exclamation point** shows that a statement is an exclamation. (Use exclamation points sparingly)

Exercise 21

Periods, Question Marks, and Exclamation Points

Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with the correct punctuation: either a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point.

1. The guide wanted to know when we were leaving_____
2. Dr__Hammond gave Martin some bad news last night_____
3. The impatient lady asked how much time it would take to finish raking the leaves_____
4. Where did I put my rake_____
5. Who told you Tom was planning to leave_____
6. I asked him why he had chosen to leave_____
7. Would you please tell everyone Tom is leaving now_____
8. When are we leaving_____
9. When we were leaving, Tom asked if he could drive_____
10. Janet was sure Tom already left_____
11. Was Janet sure Tom already left_____
12. “Tom__” Janet shouted.
13. Janet wanted to know if Tom was coming back_____
14. Is Tom coming back_____
15. I don't know_____

Chapter 10

Commas

A **comma** is used to separate sentence elements. Commas are probably the most difficult type of punctuation to master because commas can be used in so many different situations. There are basically five situations in which commas are used.

1) Use a comma to separate items in a list.


Krista carried pencils, a notebook, a pair of scissors, and a box of crayons in her backpack. (*commas come between each item listed*)

The president of the company fired his secretary, sold all the stock, took all the money out of the safe, and bought a plane ticket to Hawaii. (*commas separate list of actions*)

The candidate was a tall, awkward man with a big nose. The audience knew he was also rich, intelligent, and charismatic. (*commas separate list of adjectives*)

My new boss is from Kansas City, Missouri. (*comma separates city and state*)

2) Use a comma and a coordinating conjunction (FANBOYS) to join two or more independent clauses.


Justin loves seafood, but he can't eat shrimp because he has allergies.

My cousin from Akron is coming to visit this weekend, so I have to finish my chores before he arrives.

Arnie fell off the horse, and now he must use crutches.

3) Use a comma to separate a long phrase or dependent clause from the rest of a sentence.

Because he was such a good hitter, Murphy played in every game this season.



In the cold morning air, the car rattled and sputtered.

From the back of the bus, Leslie watched the stoplight turn from yellow to red.

If the phrase or dependent clause is short and the sentence is clear enough to avoid misreading, you may decide to omit the comma.

After the game we walked home in the rain.

4) Use a comma to separate words or phrases that disrupt the flow of a sentence.

Natasha was, after all, my best friend.

He was a dishonest person, however, and his lack of morals led to his downfall.

The movie was, in my opinion, much too long and boring.

In fact, everyone thought the movie was terrible.

Here is a list of common transitional words and phrases that disrupt the flow of sentences and usually require commas:

therefore	however	furthermore	for example
in fact	thus	moreover	consequently
on the other hand	meanwhile	besides	first
second	finally	next	last
besides	in conclusion	otherwise	

5) Use commas to separate words or phrases or dependent clauses that add nonessential information to a sentence.

nonessential information

My uncle, who used to live in Wisconsin, is a loyal Greenbay Packers fan. (*“who used to live in Wisconsin” is extra information—we still know who the subject of the sentence is without knowing this information*)

essential information

The book about Vince Lombardi was a best seller. (*the phrase “about Vince Lombardi” is essential information because it explains which book—without the phrase “about Vince Lombardi” the sentence could be about any book*)

DO NOT use commas to set off words, clauses or phrases that are essential to the sentence. Essential phrases provide information necessary to identifying the subject or object of a sentence. There’s an easy test to determine whether or not the word or phrase is essential: simply read the sentence without the word or phrase in question. If the meaning of the sentence remains unchanged, it’s OK to use commas. If the sentence changes meaning or the missing words leave out important information about the subject or object, do not use commas.

nonessential information

The chimpanzee, who had never lived in captivity, was a valuable addition to the zoo. (*“who had never lived in captivity” provides extra, nonessential information—we still know that “chimpanzee” is the subject—use commas to set off nonessential clause*)

essential information

The veterinarian offered assistance to the lady who brought in the stray cat. (*the phrase “who brought in the stray cat” is essential because it explains which lady—DO NOT use commas to set off essential information*)

nonessential information

Albert Einstein, who immigrated to the United States from Europe, is one of the greatest scientists of all time. (*“who immigrated to the United States from Europe” is extra information—nonessential phrases are set off with commas*)

Keep in mind that words or phrases that rename nouns are nonessential.

nonessential information

Algonquin Press, the publisher who printed his first book, miscalculated his royalty earnings. (*“the publisher who printed his first book” renames “Algonquin Press”*)

Quick Review

A **comma** is used to separate sentence elements. There are five common uses for commas.

1. Use a comma to separate items in a list.
2. Use a comma and a coordinating conjunction (FANBOYS) to join two or more independent clauses.
3. Use a comma to separate a long phrase or dependent clause from the rest of a sentence.
4. Use commas to separate words or phrases that disrupt the flow of a sentence.
5. Use commas to separate phrases that add nonessential information to a sentence.

Exercise 22

Using Commas

Below is a list showing the five reasons commas are used. In the blank before each sentence, write the letter that best represents the reason commas are used in the sentence.

Example: A The rabbit, the kitten, and the duck played beside the pond.

- A. Use a comma to separate items in a list.
- B. Use a comma and a coordinating conjunction (FANBOYS) to join two or more independent clauses.
- C. Use a comma to separate a long phrase or dependent clause from the rest of a sentence.
- D. Use a comma to separate words or phrases that disrupt the flow of a sentence.
- E. Use a comma to separate words or phrases or dependent clauses that add nonessential information to a sentence.

1. _____ The children, who had been playing on the porch, tossed popcorn into the yard.
2. _____ A squirrel nibbled the popcorn, and a dog inched closer.
3. _____ When the dog jumped, the squirrel scurried up a tree.
4. _____ The squirrel dropped a nut onto the dog's head, however, to frighten the dog away.
5. _____ The dog howled into the air, but the squirrel dropped another nut.
6. _____ Deciding to give up, the dog hurried back into its own yard.
7. _____ The triumphant squirrel danced on a limb, shaking more nuts out of the tree.
8. _____ The frightened dog tucked its tail between its legs, lowered its head, and crawled into its doghouse.
9. _____ The squirrel, who had been dancing this whole time, continued to eat popcorn.
10. _____ The children laughed, and they went inside to make more popcorn.

Exercise 23

Using Commas

In the blank before each sentence, write X if the sentence contains a comma error. Write C if the sentence is correct.

1. ____ When Fred stopped to ask for directions he realized he'd be late for the party.
2. ____ Jill lit the candle and the room slowly brightened.
3. ____ Because the teacher required her students to read aloud, Ferdinand never signed up for her classes.
4. ____ The Beast, considered one of the scariest roller coasters in the world, is Horace's favorite ride.
5. ____ His injuries included a broken leg a bruised elbow, and a broken collarbone.
6. ____ The book was in my opinion too difficult for third graders to understand.
7. ____ The video game contained scenes of violence, prostitution, and drug use, so the game should not be sold to children.
8. ____ The book, about Adolph Hitler, is a bestseller.
9. ____ Walter Payton, who is best known for his flashy running style, was admitted to the NFL Hall of Fame.
10. ____ The brown fuzzy mouse scurried under the bed, for the sneaky hungry cat was on the prowl.

Chapter 11

Other Punctuation

Semicolon

A **semicolon** is used to connect two closely related independent clauses.

Arnie fell off the horse; he must use crutches now.

The barn roof was in need of repair; however, low crop prices meant money was scarce. (*semicolon required between these independent clauses— “however” is not a coordinating conjunction and will not join two independent clauses*)

Don't overuse semicolons. Use periods between independent clauses that are not closely related.

Colon

A **colon** is used to introduce a list, a quote, or a conclusion.

The items he carried were heavy: a pole ax, an ammunition bag, and a rifle. (*introduces a list*)

Dr. King walked quietly up to the podium and exclaimed bravely: “I have a dream!” (*introduces a quote*)

I thought about the question for weeks and finally the answer came: he must die. (*introduces a conclusion*)

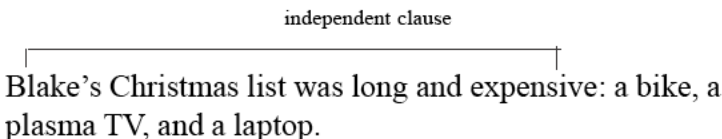
DO NOT use a colon with the phrases “such as” or “for example.”

When going on a long hike, pack only the essentials *such as* rope, a tent, matches, a knife, and a signal mirror. (*no colon with “such as”*)

When going on a long hike, pack only the essentials: rope, a tent, matches, a knife, and a signal mirror. (*colon used alone*)

Always make sure to use an independent clause (complete sentence) before a colon.

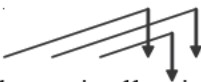
independent clause



Blake's Christmas list was long and expensive: a bike, a plasma TV, and a laptop.

Hyphen

Use a **hyphen** to join multiple words used as a single modifier.




The old man had a know-it-all attitude. (*“know,” “it,” and “all” work together as a single word to modify “attitude”*)

The parking space was reserved for mothers-to-be. (*“mothers-to-be” is a group of words acting as a single word*)

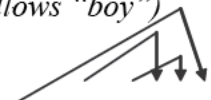
Numbers twenty-one through ninety-nine are hyphenated.

The winning lottery numbers were fourteen, thirty-six, forty-four, and seven. (*“thirty-six” and “forty-four” are individual numbers working together to form a single number*)

DO NOT hyphenate multiple word modifiers that follow the word they modify.



At the time of the incident, the boy was fifteen years old. (*no hyphen because “fifteen years old” follows “boy”*)



At the time of the incident, he was a fifteen-year-old boy. (*hyphenate “fifteen year-old” coming before “boy”*)

DO NOT hyphenate modifiers unless they work together as a single word.

Annie was a tall, lanky mare. (*“tall” and “lanky” both modify “mare” but the two words don’t work together as a single word*)

Annie was a cross-eyed mare. (*“cross-eyed” works as a single word to modify “mare”*)

There’s a simple test to help determine if a group of modifiers work together as a single word. Use each of the modifiers individually. If the meaning is clear with each modifier, don’t use hyphens. If using each modifier individually makes no sense, use a hyphen.

My roommate is a selfish, childish person. (*“selfish person” makes sense— “childish person” make sense—the modifiers are not working together—no hyphen*)

When I visited the pound, I fell in love with a green-eyed cat. (*“green cat” doesn’t make sense— “eyed cat” doesn’t make sense— “green-eyed” works together as a single modifier— use a hyphen*)

Dash

A **dash** marks a sudden interruption in a sentence. Make a dash by typing two hyphens without spaces before, after, or between them.

The combination to the safe is twenty-four right, sixteen left—no, that’s not it! (*sudden interruption in sentence marked by dash*)

The Burger King on Oak Street—the red building with the big playground out front—is the top selling fast food restaurant in the entire state. (*dashes set off interruption*)

Slash

A **slash** is used to indicate an either/or relationship between two alternatives.

With a receipt, you may request a refund/exchange at any of our stores. (*either a refund or an exchange*)

Apostrophes

Apostrophes show possession and indicate omitted letters in contractions.

Apostrophes indicate omitted letters in contractions.

The Bears can't possibly beat the Broncos, just like the Chargers couldn't beat the Colts. (*"Can't" is contraction for can not, and "couldn't" is contraction for could not—apostrophes stand for an omitted letter in each contraction*)

That's the tallest mountain in the world. (*"That's" is a contraction for that is*)

It's almost midnight. (*"It's" is a contraction for it is*)

Apostrophes also show possession. Add an apostrophe + s ('s) to singular possessive nouns.

Rodney's car wouldn't start, so he drove Chad's truck to the lake. (*"Rodney's car" and "Chad's truck" show possession*)

Possession is not limited to objects. Emotions, actions, and qualities Also belong to people.

A mother's love is a powerful bond. (*"love" belongs to "mother"*)

The baby's constant crying kept me awake all night. (*the "crying" of the "baby"*)

Hannibal's bravery is what made him such an effective leader.

(*"bravery" of "Hannibal"*)

Plural ownership (something owned by a group of two or more) uses an s + apostrophe (s').

The girls' basketball team won their first two games. (*"girls" is plural—the team belongs to a group of girls*)

My brothers' game was postponed until Saturday. (*more than one brother*)

My brother's game was postponed until Saturday. (*only one brother*)

DO NOT assume that all possessive nouns ending –s are plural. Mr. Harris, for example, is singular. Add ('s) to singular possessive nouns ending with the letter -s.

Mr. Harris's yard is the prettiest in town. (*"Mr. Harris" is singular*)

The business's clients were dissatisfied with the new CEO. (*"business" is singular*)

I'm going to prom with Freddy Jones's little sister. (*"Jones" is singular*)

Tonight we are going to have dinner with the Joneses'. (*"Joneses" is plural*)

DO NOT use an apostrophe with possessive personal pronouns. (its, your, yours, his, her, their, my, mine)

Jessica and Marcie like to watch movies in their dorm room.
(*“their” is possessive*)

Trent twisted his ankle playing basketball. (*“his” is possessive*)

The final piece of pizza was hers. (*“hers” is possessive*)

The rabbit cared for its young. (*“its” is possessive—no apostrophe*)

It’s raining outside. (*“It’s” is a contraction for it is—“It’s” is not possessive*)

DO use apostrophes with possessive indefinite pronouns.
(everybody, anyone, no one)

Hamburgers are popular in the cafeteria, but pizza is everybody’s favorite. (*“everybody” is possessive*)

Anyone’s feelings would be hurt by such a cruel remark.
(*“anyone” is possessive*)

Quick Review

- A **semicolon** is used to connect two closely related independent clauses.
- A **colon** is used to introduce a list, a quote, or a conclusion.
- Use a **hyphen** to join multiple words used as a single modifier.
- A **dash** marks a sudden interruption in a sentence.
- A **slash** is used to indicate an either/or relationship between two alternatives.
- **Apostrophes** show possession and indicate omitted letters in contractions.

Exercise 24

Punctuation

Select the correct punctuation from the list below to fill the blanks in the following sentences. Write the letter of the correct punctuation in each blank. **Example:** Raymond mowed Elizabeth Fs grass when she broke her leg.

- | | | |
|--------------|----------|---------------|
| A. semicolon | B. colon | C. hyphen |
| D. dash | E. slash | F. apostrophe |

1. The congressman paused after the speech to wait for questions ____ comments.
2. Vampires do not exist in America ____ they are a European myth.
3. Vampires ____ are you crazy ____ werewolves are the real problem.
4. He brought lots of tools ____ a hammer, a nail apron, and a tape measure.
5. Alexandria wanted to get in shape ____ she jogged to school this morning.
6. Fishing requires lots of expensive equipment ____ a rod, a reel, tackle, and bait.
7. He didn't ____ receive a grade because it was a pass ____ fail course.
8. Even though Hansel ____s mother loved snow, she couldn't ____t wait for spring.
9. Wendell ____s house overlooked the town.
10. The punch ____drunk boxer circled his opponent.
11. The ninety ____seven ____year ____old building sold for almost nothing.
12. The water ____sewer company inspected the old building.
13. They decided the building was unsafe ____the building was later condemned.
14. When the well ____built building was condemned because of the company's decision, the real estate agent was dumbfounded.
15. His get ____rich ____quick scheme had failed.

Exercise 25

Apostrophes

In the blank before each sentence, write X if the sentence contains an error involving apostrophes. Write C if the sentence is correct.

1. ___ Charlies car is parked on my lawn. (one Charlie)
2. ___ The family's reputation in the town was ruined. (one family)
3. ___ The soldiers bravery was celebrated by the people of the town.
(one soldier)
4. ___ The town's Memorial Day parade was canceled this year due to bad weather. (two towns)
5. ___ Carefully, Judith lifted Marcus' hat. (one Marcus)
6. ___ The school's soccer team was very good. (one school)
7. ___ Bess's anger drove her insane. (one Bess)
8. ___ The dog rested inside it's doghouse. (one dog)
9. ___ I cant go to Randall's game with you tonight. (one Randall)
10. ___ Its a shame people have to be so rude.
11. ___ The old man's reckless driving worried the neighbors. (one man)
12. ___ The mayor's speech was long, boring, and pointless. (one mayor)
13. ___ Thats the tallest building in Vermont. (one building)
14. ___ The doctor's role in the murder was unclear until we heard the coroners testimony. (one doctor, one coroner)
15. ___ The squirrels carried the peanuts back to the den in the oak tree.
(two squirrels)

Chapter 12

Punctuation Used with Quoted Material

Quotation Marks

Quotation marks are used to indicate direct quotations, to set off titles of short works, and to mark words used in a special sense.

When asked about global warming, the congressman insisted that “We have no evidence that the phenomenon exists.”
(quotation marks set off direct quote)

DO NOT use quotation marks with paraphrased quote. A paraphrase occurs when a writer changes the wording of a direct quote, but retains the general idea.

According to Joseph Campbell you should “be kind, for everyone you meet is involved in a great struggle.” *(quotation marks set off direct quote)*

According to Joseph Campbell, people should be nice to one another because we all endure trials and troubles. *(no quotation marks around paraphrased quote)*

Quotation marks are also used with titles of short works like essays, articles, short poems, short stories, and songs.

“Stopping By Woods on a Snowy Evening” is my favorite poem. *(quotation marks used with short poem title)*

Sunday’s *New York Times* featured an article titled “Credit Card Debt and College Freshman.” *(quotation marks used with article title—notice that newspaper title is italicized)*

I took guitar lessons for two years, and the only song I learned was “Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star.” *(quotation marks set off song title)*

Quotation marks can be used to draw attention to a word or phrase used in an unusual way.

“Love” in this sense is not an emotion; instead, it is a commodity to be bought and sold. (*quotation marks indicate unusual meaning*)

With “friends” like her, who needs enemies. (*quotation marks indicate unusual meaning*)

Using Quotation Marks with Other Punctuation

Periods and commas always fall inside quotation marks.

Her favorite poems were “The Raven,” “Annabel Lee,” and “The Bells.”

Colons and semicolons fall outside quotation marks.

Henry David Thoreau insisted that “The mass of men lead lives of quiet desperation”; Buddhist philosophy clearly underlies his thinking.

Question marks and exclamation points come inside quotation marks when the quote is an exclamation or a question.

Muhammed Ali exclaimed, “I’m pretty—I’m so pretty!” (*quote is an exclamation*)

Kaylan asked, “Why should we listen to him?” (*quote is a question*)

Question marks and exclamation points fall outside of quotation marks when your own sentence is a question or exclamation but the quote is not.

Which boxer yelled, “I’m pretty—I’m so pretty”? (*the sentence is a question so question mark goes outside of quotation marks*)

It made me furious when he said “It was our idea first”! (*sentence is an exclamation—quote is not*)

Use single quotation marks when one set of quotation marks falls inside another set. Type a single quotation mark by using an apostrophe.

Joe said, “‘Heartbreak Hotel’ is the greatest song of all time”

Italicizing and Underlining

Italicize or underline titles of long works.

Remember that shorter works are set off by quotation marks. It is important that you can distinguish between long works and short works.

Titles of long works are italicized (or underlined).

movies: *The Notebook*

television shows: *Lost, Monday Night Football*

book-length works including newspapers, novels, long poems, speeches, and plays: *New York Times, To Kill a Mockingbird, Beowulf, Othello, Gettysburg Address*

names of ships and aircraft: *Apollo 1, Mayflower*

Titles of short works use quotation marks.

short stories, short poems, articles, and essays: “A Worn Path,”
“The Raven,”

Longer works like newspapers are italicized, but shorter works like the articles that make up newspapers are set off by quotation marks

I just finished an article called “How to Get Any Guy You Want” in this week’s issue of *Glamour Girl*.

Of Mice and Men is Seth's favorite book.

"Annabel Lee" is a grim and dismal poem about lost love.

Mallory stayed up late to watch *The Sixth Sense*, and she had nightmares for a week.

Parentheses

Parentheses are used to enclose supplemental information.

Catlyn showed up two hours late (I thought he'd never come).

Arnie's favorite horse is the little pony (the one all the children ride.)

Parentheses are also used to document quoted sources.

The Transcendental movement of the nineteenth century was based on the idea that "the mass of men lead lives of quiet desperation" (Thoreau 23). (*parentheses enclose page number where quote can be found and last name of author of quoted material*)

Thoreau maintains that "the mass of men lead lives of quiet desperation" (23). (*parentheses enclose page number where quoted material appears in original text—author's name not needed since it is mentioned before the quote*)

Thessian argues that "human cloning demeans what it means to be human" (34). (*notice that period falls outside parentheses*)

In addition to providing page numbers (and author's name) in parentheses, a works cited page showing publication information must also be included for essays in which you document information.

Brackets

Brackets show that material has been added or that changes have been made to a quote.

Thoreau insists, “the mass of men [and women] lead lives of quiet desperation” (23). (*“and women” is not part of the original quote and has been added by the author*)

Ellipses

Ellipses indicate that material has been omitted from a quote.

Use three spaced periods to indicate missing words or phrases. Use four spaced periods to indicate that an entire sentence or more has been omitted.

Walter Morrison, an expert on gunfighters, states, “Doc Holliday was a southern gentleman . . . and a deadly gunfighter” (41). (*only a few words have been omitted*)

Walter Morrison claims that “Doc Holliday was a southern gentleman . . . and one of the best-known heroes in the west. (41). (*a sentence or more has been omitted from the quote*)

Quick Review

- **Quotation marks** are used to indicate direct quotations, to set off titles of short works, and to mark words used in a special sense.
- **Italicize** titles of long works, but use quotation marks around titles of shorter works.
- **Parentheses** are used to enclose supplemental information.
- **Brackets** show that material has been added or that changes have been made to a quote.
- **Ellipses** indicate that material has been omitted from a quote.

Exercise 26

Using Punctuation

Locate errors involving parentheses, quotation marks, brackets, ellipsis, and italics/underlining in the following sentences. In the blank after each sentence, write the letter that matches the punctuation used incorrectly in the sentence. Write CORRECT in the blank if the sentence is correct.

- A. parentheses
B. quotation marks
C. ellipsis
D. brackets
E. italics/underlining

1. Michele Rolando's book *Offensive Basketball* offers an excellent guide for beginning coaches. _____
2. Rolando is known all over the world as "The Queen of Basketball". _____
3. In her book, she suggests that "proper spacing is the key to getting open shots" 45. _____
4. Rolando's college career (she played at the University of Tennessee) proves that she knows a thing or two about basketball. _____
5. Martin Bloomberg insists that "Rolanda sic is one of the greatest scorers of all time" (34). _____
6. My favorite book is *As I Lay Dying* by William Faulkner. _____
7. I read an article titled *Making Money* in last month's *Wall Street Journal*. _____
8. The article suggested that "education is the key..... to getting a good job" (12). _____
9. Electric razors shave close and give you what one advertiser describes as "a baby-soft face". _____
10. "My goodness!" Enrique shouted as the dog chased him down the street. _____

Exercise 27

Using Quotation Marks

Read the following sentences, looking carefully for errors involving quotation marks. In the space before each sentence, write C if the passage contains no errors. Write X if the sentence contains errors. Be certain to recognize situations in which capitalization or punctuation is used incorrectly with quotation marks.

1. ____ The graveyard was quiet and dark and the moon had just risen as Michael turned to Amy, "Have you ever read Stephen King's book titled "Salem's Lot?""
2. ____ "I don't want to hear about it", Amy whispered.
3. ____ "I read an article about vampires in the 'National Enquirer,'" Michael said. "It was titled "Blood-Sucking Freaks" and explained that vampires really do exist all over the world."
4. ____ Amy's eyes narrowed with anger, "I don't want to hear about that stupid article".
5. ____ "You don't believe in vampires, do you"? Michael asked.
6. ____ "If you don't shut up, I'm never speaking to you again."
7. ____ "Ha, ha, ha," Michael laughed as he crept toward Amy, his eyes focused on her neck.
8. ____ He covered his mouth with his hand, and when he pulled his hand away Amy shrieked. "there is something I want to show you," Michael said.
9. ____ Michael removed the engagement ring he held between his clenched teeth and dropped to one knee. "Will you marry me"?
10. ____ "No, Amy said. "I liked you better when I thought you were a vampire."

Exercise 28

Definitions

Match each definition below with a term from the list. Write the letter of the correct term in the blank beside the corresponding definition. Each letter will be used only once.

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|
| A. period | B. question mark | C. exclamation point |
| D. comma | E. transitional words | F. semicolon |
| G. colon | H. hyphen | I. dash |
| J. slash | K. apostrophe | L. 's |
| M. s' | N. italics/underlining | |
| O. quotation marks | P. parentheses | Q. brackets |
| R. ellipses | S. essential information | |
| T. nonessential information | | |

- _____ 1. however, therefore, for example
- _____ 2. used to introduce a list, a quote, or a conclusion
- _____ 3. used to show possession or omitted letters in contractions
- _____ 4. used with a coordinating conjunction to join two independent clauses
- _____ 5. used after some abbreviations and at the end of a statement
- _____ 6. shows an either/or situation between two words
- _____ 7. used at the end of a question
- _____ 8. used to connect two closely related independent clauses
- _____ 9. used to show words have been omitted from a quote
- _____ 10. used to show something has been added to a quote
- _____ 11. used alone or in pairs to show a sudden interruption in a sentence
- _____ 12. used to show that a singular noun is possessive
- _____ 13. used with titles of long works like books, newspapers, movies

- _____ 14. phrase or clause set off by commas that adds unnecessary information to a sentence
- _____ 15. used to show that a sentence is an exclamation
- _____ 16. used to show that a plural noun is possessive
- _____ 17. used to join multiple words used as a single modifier
- _____ 18. used to set off quoted material, dialogue, and titles of short works
- _____ 19. used to set off page numbers in a quote and to extra information added to a sentence
- _____ 20. phrase or clause NOT set off by commas that provides necessary information in a sentence

Part 4

Capitalization, Pronouns, Subject/Verb Agreement

Now that you have a grasp on forming and punctuating sentences, it's time to turn our attention to the words within sentences. This section focuses on capitalization, subject/verb agreement, pronoun agreement, and pronoun case.

Chapter 13

Capitalization

Capitalize 1) proper nouns, 2) titles, 3) abbreviations, and 4) the first word of sentences.

1) Proper nouns are specific names of people or places.

From the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific, the United States is a mix of mountains, plains, and deserts. (*“Atlantic Ocean” and “Pacific” are proper nouns which name specific places— “mountains, plains, and deserts” are not proper nouns because they refer to places in general but not to specific places*)

Of all the free-flowing rivers I’ve ever fished, my favorite is the Rockcastle River. (*“Rockcastle River” is a proper noun, a specific place— “free-flowing rivers” is not a proper noun, not a specific place*)

The street was dark and deserted; it reminded me of Oak Street, in the neighborhood where I grew up. (*“street” is not a proper noun— “Oak Street” is a specific street*)

Heather’s dad remembered how tough high school could be. Back in the eighties he had nearly flunked out of Tolleyville High School. (*capitalize “high school” only when it’s used as part of a high school’s name*)

Brian always had trouble in biology classes because they require lots of memorization. (*“biology classes” doesn’t refer to a specific class*)

Because she was only a freshman, Terrah couldn’t take a Biology 401. (*“freshman” is not a proper noun— “Biology 401” is a specific class*)

The secretary stayed late to type the memo for Trent’s meeting.
(“*secretary*” is not a name— “*Trent*” is a name and a proper noun)

Capitalize titles like “Mom,” “Dad,” “Uncle,” “Grandpa,” “President” “Mr.,” “Ms.,” and “Senator” when they are used as names. A title used to describe a person is not capitalized. Usually (but not always) a title following a possessive pronoun is descriptive and is not capitalized.

I gave the earrings to Mom because she likes silver better than gold. (“*Mom*” is used as a name)

I went to the supermarket with my mom, and we shopped all afternoon. (“*mom*” follows possessive pronoun “*my*” and is not used as a name)

Things can also be proper nouns if a brand name is used.

Lilian’s father bought a new Corvette and grew long hair when he turned forty. (“*Corvette*” is a brand name)

Arnie likes to drink cola for breakfast. (“*cola*” is not a brand name)

Matthew likes to drink Coca Cola. (“*Coca Cola*” is a brand name)

2) Titles should also be capitalized. DO NOT capitalize coordinating conjunctions, articles, or prepositions of less than five letters unless they are the first or last word of the title.

In my literature class we read *The Sound and the Fury*. (“*and*” is a coordinating conjunction— “*the*” is an article—notice that “*The*” is capitalized when it is the first word in the title)

Wanting to know more about spontaneous human combustion, Justin read an article titled “Human Being 451: Facts Behind

the Myth.” (“*Behind*” is a preposition longer than five letters—
“*the*” is an article)

3) Capitalize abbreviations made up of letters.

CD	TV	VCR
DVD	NASA	FBI
PVC	ESP	NYC
AWOL	CIA	NATO

4) First words of sentences are always capitalized. Also capitalize the first words in lines of dialogue and the first words in complete sentences enclosed in parentheses or following colons.

The old gypsy said, “Only a person pure of heart can save the village from the werewolf.”

The reason he missed work was simple: He didn’t feel like putting up with his boss’s rudeness.

The intern pretended to like the boss’s son (She knew it was the only way to get a promotion).

Quick Review

Capitalize 1) proper nouns, 2) titles, 3) abbreviations, and 4) the first word of sentences.

- 1) Proper nouns** are specific names of people or places.
 - Capitalize titles used as names. (*Mr., Dad*)
 - Capitalize brand names. (*Crest toothpaste*)

2) Titles should also be capitalized.

3) Capitalize abbreviations made up of letters.

4) First words of sentences are always capitalized.

Exercise 29

Capital Letters

Write C in the blank before each sentence if there are no errors involving capital letters. Write X in the blank if the sentence contains a capitalization error.

- _____ 1. Mike gave the flowers to his aunt.
- _____ 2. Surprisingly, Aunt Maybel was delighted by the flowers.
- _____ 3. She met with three Lawyers today.
- _____ 4. The Highway was crowded with traffic, so Holly took Salsburg Street instead.
- _____ 5. In last night's game, the eagles defeated the bears in overtime.
- _____ 6. Because Ray loved Science classes, he signed up for Biology 350.
- _____ 7. History is Tandy's best subject, so she signed up for history 101.
- _____ 8. The team was made up of three Freshmen and two Seniors.
- _____ 9. Martha stayed home to watch tv.
- _____ 10. Gary said, "you boys need to be more careful."
- _____ 11. She is lucky the first person to arrive at the scene of the accident was a doctor.
- _____ 12. Before the ambulance arrived, Dr. Sanders treated her injuries.
- _____ 13. There was one reason for his rudeness: he didn't like his mother-in-law.
- _____ 14. I gave the letter to mom.
- _____ 15. My mom read the letter to Father.
- _____ 16. The war ended on August 3, 1954.
- _____ 17. The Civil War started in 1841.
- _____ 18. The Championship Game will be played tonight.
- _____ 19. The Mud Valley Tournament Championship will be played tonight.

- _____ 20. Rhonda brought plenty of snacks: crackers, cookies, and Cheetohs.
- _____ 21. “Silent night” is my favorite Christmas song.
- _____ 22. *The Man with No Name* is a great movie.
- _____ 23. *Learning about Mathematics* is the textbook we use in the class.
- _____ 24. *Much Ado About Nothing* was written by William Shakespeare.
- _____ 25. Because she loves spring, Easter is her favorite holiday.

Chapter 14

Subject Predicate Agreement

Subjects and **predicates** must agree in number. In chapter one, we learned that every sentence contains a subject and that every subject performs the action of a verb within a sentence. This verb is the predicate. Every subject must agree with the predicate it performs. If the subject is singular, the verb must be singular; if the subject is plural, the sentence requires a plural predicate.

sub verb
That dog is mangy. (*“dog” is a singular subject— “is” is a singular predicate*)

sub verb
Dogs are loyal pets. (*“dogs” is a plural subject— “are” is a plural predicate*)

Notice that sometimes words, phrases or even clauses can fall between the subject and its verb. Remember that no matter how far apart the two words may be in a sentence, the subject is the performer of the action and the action is the predicate.

sub verb
The boy, who did well on all his exams, is one of the best students in class.

sub verb
The problem with the solutions you proposed is that the fund is almost bankrupt.

Not all sentences begin with a subject. Sometimes the subject can follow the verb. The subject and verb must still agree.

verb sub
There are many reasons for his embarrassing behavior.

verb sub
Is his appointment with Dr. Harold or Dr. Gibson?

Not all subjects ending –s are plural.

Mathematics is my favorite subject. (*“Mathematics” is a single subject requiring a singular verb “is”*)

The Bears is my favorite team.

Single groups made up of multiple people are singular and require singular verbs.

The team is looking forward to next season. (*“team” is singular— “is” is singular*)

Important note: in all of the examples above, we used to-be verbs because it is easy to see the difference between “is” and “are” and “was” and “were.” All other verbs work the same. Sometimes it is hard to determine whether a verb is singular or plural. You don’t have to worry about memorizing long lists of verbs, however. There is an easier way. If you have problems determining if a verb in question is plural or singular, use the verb in a simple sentence which is easier to understand. For the verb “has” you might use a single sentence like:

Matt has two marbles. (*“Matt” is a singular subject— “has” sounds right with “has,” so we know that “has” is a singular verb*)

They have two marbles. (*“They” is a plural subject— “have” sounds right with a plural subject, so we know that “have” is a plural verb*)

To make things easier, here is a list of singular and plural to-be verbs.

singular

is
was
has

plural

are
were
have

Up to this point, it is easy to make the subject and predicate agree. If you can locate the subject and verb you can make them agree. However, there are five instances in which subject and predicate agreement can be more difficult.

1) Compound subjects (two or more nouns joined by the word “and”) usually require plural verbs.

sub sub verb
A map and compass are all he needed to find his way back to camp. (*“map” and “compass” are each singular, but they form a plural subject when used together— “are” is a plural verb*)

sub sub verb
Insurance and gas are the two biggest expenses associated with owning a car.

2) However, when a compound subject is a single thing, use a singular verb.

sub sub verb
Curds and whey is Miss Muffett’s favorite dish. (*“curds and whey” is a single dish—one dish requires singular verb “is”*)

3) When compound subjects are joined by the words “or” or “nor,” the subject closest to the verb determines whether the verb is singular or plural. If the closest subject is singular, use a singular verb. If the closer subject is plural, use a plural verb.

sub sub verb
Mr. Mitchell nor his neighbors are going to like the new leash law. (*“neighbors” is the closer subject, so use a plural verb “are”*)

sub sub verb
The neighbors nor Mr. Mitchell is going to like the new leash law. (*“Mr. Mitchell” is the closer subject, so use a singular verb “is”*)

4) When “each” or “every” precedes a plural noun, use a singular verb.

sub verb
The students are going to the library. (*“students” is plural, so use a plural verb “are”*)

sub verb
Each of the students is going to the library to study. (*“students” is preceded by “each,” so use a singular verb “is”*)

sub verb
The dogs in the yard have fleas. (*“dogs” is plural— “have” is plural*)

sub verb
Every dog in the yard has fleas. (*“dog” is preceded by “every,” so use a singular verb “has”*)

5) Some indefinite pronouns are always singular. When a singular indefinite pronoun is used as a subject, it always requires a singular verb. The only way to recognize indefinite pronouns is to memorize them. Here are some of the most common indefinite pronouns:

everybody	everyone	anyone
no one	nobody	one
none	either	neither
someone	somebody	each

sub verb
Everyone is going to Zac’s party tonight.

No one is coming to the study session in the library. (*“no one” is the singular subject, so use a singular verb “is”*)

Remember that “all” “most” “some” ARE NOT singular pronouns and DO NOT require a singular predicate.

Quick review

Subjects and **verbs** must agree in number. There are five instances in which subject verb agreement can be tricky:

- 1) Compound subjects (two or more nouns joined by the word “and”) usually require plural verbs.
- 2) When a compound subject is a single person or thing, use a singular verb.
- 3) When compound subjects are joined by the words “or” or “nor,” the subject closest to the verb determines whether the verb is singular or plural.
- 4) When “each” or “every” precedes a plural noun, use a singular verb.
- 5) Indefinite pronouns are always singular. When an indefinite pronoun is used as a subject, it always requires a singular verb

Exercise 30

Subject Predicate Agreement

In each of the following sentences, choose the predicate that agrees with its subject. Write the number of the correct choice in the blank before each sentence.

1. ___ Neither of the sisters (1) **is** (2) **are** going to the party tomorrow.
2. ___ Both of the brothers (1) **was** (2) **were** born with a deadly bone disease.
3. ___ The Beatles (1) **is** (2) **are** my favorite band.
4. ___ The fox, who had eaten all the farmer's chickens, (1) **was** (2) **were** feeding a litter of pups.
5. ___ (1) **Is** (2) **Are** Larry and Jim coming to the game?
6. ___ Neither the mayor nor the congressmen (1) **believe** (2) **believes** the new law will pass.
7. ___ Despite the congressman's best efforts, the voters (1) **has** (2) **have** passed the law.
8. ___ The efforts of the congressman (1) **was** (2) **were** in vain.
9. ___ The citizens, the voters, and the mayor (1) **was** (2) **were** disappointed.
10. ___ Every voter and citizen (1) **has** (2) **have** vowed to contest the vote.
11. ___ Every angry citizen wanted a new vote, but all the supporters of the law (1) **was** (2) **were** convinced this idea was nonsense.
12. ___ Anyone who can respect the rules (1) **is** (2) **are** welcome to stay.
13. ___ Those who can't obey the rules (1) **is** (2) **are** asked to leave.
14. ___ The solution to the problems (1) **is** (2) **are** to bring in an expert.
15. ___ High gas prices (1) **is** (2) **are** forcing many Americans to use mass transit.
16. ___ The Dolphins (1) **is** (2) **are** the dominant sports franchise in Miami.
17. ___ The organization's determination (1) **is** (2) **are** astonishing.
18. ___ Everybody (1) **was** (2) **were** hoping the team would make the playoffs.
19. ___ One win in the playoffs (1) **is** (2) **are** a tremendous accomplishment.
20. ___ The coaching staff (1) **is** (2) **are** hoping for a playoff berth next season.

If students wish to appeal a grade, they must fill out the appropriate form in the Dean’s office. (*“students” is plural—plural antecedent uses a plural pronoun “they”*)

A single group made up of multiple people is singular and requires a singular pronoun.

Correct: The team chose its new captain. (*“team” is a single thing—use “its”*)

Incorrect: The team chose their new captain. (*“team is singular— “their” is plural*)

The company has released its newest product. (*singular “company” matches singular “its”*)

2) A pronoun’s **gender** refers to the sex represented by the pronoun. The sex of the pronoun is determined by the antecedent.

antecedent pronoun
The boy straightened his collar. (*“his” refers to “boy”*)

antecedent pronoun pronoun
When Marcie was six years old, she fell off a swing and broke her arm. (*antecedent is a female, so use “she” and “her”*)

Sometimes it is unclear whether an antecedent is male or female. In this case use “they” and “their” for plural antecedents and “he or she” or “his or her” for singular antecedents.

antecedent pronoun
Bats are beneficial because they eat so many bugs. (*“Bats” is the antecedent— “they” is a pronoun*)

antecedent
A secretary should take effective notes because effective note taking is
pronoun
an important part of his or her job. (*“secretary” could be male or female, and there’s only one secretary—use “his or her”*)

antecedent

Because note taking is such an important part of their job, secretaries need to have good note taking skills. (*“secretaries” is plural, so use plural pronoun “their”*)

The rules about subject verb agreement also apply to pronoun antecedent agreement.

Remember that some indefinite pronouns are always singular.

Singular Indefinite Pronouns

everybody	each	everything
everyone	anyone	no one
nobody	one	either
neither	someone	somebody
none	anyone	

antecedent

pronoun

Everyone at the conference had to bring his or her own linens and toiletries. (*“Everyone” is singular, so use singular pronoun “his or her”*)

antecedent

pronoun

Participants in the conference had to bring their own linens and toiletries. (*“Participants” is plural, so use plural pronoun “their”*)

Each participant in the conference had to bring his or her own linens and toiletries. (*“Each participant” is singular, so use singular pronoun “his or her”*)

antecedent

pronoun

One of the boys showed me his new toys. (*singular pronoun “his” refers to antecedent “one of the boys”—“boys” is plural, but the sentence only refers to “ONE of the boys,” so a singular pronoun is required*)

Two antecedents joined by “and” are plural and require a plural pronoun.

antecedent

antecedent

pronoun

Rodney and Chad took their canoe to the lake.

Poe is an extraordinary writer. “Fall of the House of Usher” and “The Tell-Tale Heart” are two of his best works. (“his” is a singular pronoun referring to the antecedent “Poe”)

When two antecedents are joined by “or” or “nor,” the antecedent closest to the pronoun determines if the pronoun is singular or plural.

antecedent antecedent pronoun
Neither Matt nor his cousins were planning to attend their family reunion.
(“cousins” is closest to the pronoun— “cousins” is plural, so use plural pronoun “their”)

antecedent antecedent pronoun
Neither his two cousins nor Matt was planning to attend his family reunion.
(“Matt” is closest to pronoun, so singular pronoun “his” agrees with “Matt”—no need for “his or her” because we know “Matt” is male)

Quick Review

Pronouns must agree with antecedents in two ways: 1) **gender** and 2) **number**.

- 1) The **gender** of the pronoun is determined by the antecedent.
- 2) Pronouns must agree in **number**. A singular antecedent requires a singular pronoun, while a plural antecedent uses a plural pronoun.

Most of the rules about subject verb agreement also apply to pronoun antecedent agreement.

- Remember that some indefinite pronouns are always singular.
- Two antecedents joined by “and” are plural and require a plural pronoun.
- When two antecedents are joined by “or” or “nor,” the antecedent closest to the pronoun determines if the pronoun is singular or plural.

Exercise 31

Pronoun Antecedent Agreement

Select the correct pronoun to match the antecedent in each of the following sentences. Write the number of the correct choice in the blank before each sentence.

1. ____ Neither of the sisters wanted to part with (1) **their** (2) **her** (3) **his or her** toys.
2. ____ The soldiers waited in (1) **their** (2) **his or her** position.
3. ____ Some of the soldiers waited in (1) **their** (2) **his or her** position.
4. ____ Each of the soldiers waited in (1) **their** (2) **his or her** position.
5. ____ Everyone must finish (1) **their** (2) **his** (3) **his or her** homework.
6. ____ Each of the dogs drank from (1) **his** (2) **their** bowl.
7. ____ If an employee wishes to file a complaint, (1) **they** (2) **he** (3) **he or she** must contact the manager.
8. ____ Matt and the coaches planned (1) **his** (2) **his or her** (3) **their** next move.
9. ____ Matt nor the coaches planned (1) **his** (2) **his or her** (3) **their** next move.
10. ____ The coaches or Matt planned (1) **his** (2) **his or her** (3) **their** next move.
11. ____ The coaching staff planned (1) **their** (2) **its** next move.
12. ____ People never consider the harmful effects smoking can have on (1) **his or her** (2) **their** health.
13. ____ Some people never consider the harmful effects smoking can have on (1) **his or her** (2) **their** health.
14. ____ Some of the people understood the harmful effects smoking could have on (1) **his or her** (2) **their** health.
15. ____ Each of the people understood the harmful effects smoking could have on (1) **his or her** (2) **their** health.

16. ___ Most of the people understood the harmful effects smoking could have on (1) **his or her** (2) **their** health.
17. ___ One of the people understood the harmful effects smoking could have on (1) **his or her** (2) **their** health.
18. ___ All of the people understood the harmful effects smoking could have on (1) **his or her** (2) **their** health.
19. ___ Neither Martin nor is classmates have decided on (1) **his** (2) **their** schedule.
20. ___ Everyone should wash (1) **their** (2) **his or her** hair.

Chapter 16

Pronoun Case

Pronoun case is determined by the role a pronoun plays in a sentence. Unlike other parts of speech, pronouns change form depending on whether they are used as objects or subjects. When a pronoun is used as a subject, the subject case of pronoun is used. When a pronoun is used as an object, use the object case of the pronoun.

Luckily, only six pronouns are determined by case, so there are only twelve total pronouns to remember.

Subject Pronouns
(Used when pronoun is a subject)

1. I
2. he
3. she
4. we
5. they
6. who

Object Pronouns
(Used when pronoun is an object)

1. me
2. him
3. her
4. us
5. them
6. whom

No other pronouns change case. When using one of the twelve pronouns from this list, make sure to use a subject pronoun if the pronoun is doing an action. Make sure to use an object pronoun when the pronoun receives an action.

sub obj
I threw the ball to her.

sub obj
She threw the ball to me.

sub obj
He threw the ball to her.

sub obj
We threw the ball to them.

She is better at checkers than I. (am) (*“I” is a subject pronoun used with the understood verb “am”*)

They are more skilled than she (is) because they practice every night. (*“she” is a subject pronoun used with understood verb “is”*)

Preston is certainly smarter than he. (is) (*“he” is a subject pronoun used with the understood verb “is”*)

2) Predicate nominatives are pronouns that follow to-be verbs and rename the subject in a clause. Always use a subject pronoun as a predicate nominative.

sub verb PN

It was I who showed her the way to the hotel. (*“I” is a predicate nominative following the to-be verb “was” and renaming the subject “it”—use subject pronoun “I”*)

sub verb PN

I was convinced it was she who stole my watch. (*“she” is a predicate nominative following the to-be verb “was” and renaming the subject “it”—use subject pronoun “she”*)

Quick Review

Pronoun case is determined by the role a pronoun plays in a sentence.

- When a pronoun is used as a subject, the subject case of pronoun is used.
- When a pronoun is used as an object, use the object case of the pronoun.

There are only two situations in which determining pronoun case is difficult: **1) incomplete comparisons** **2) predicate nominatives**.

1) Incomplete comparisons occur when a pronoun is compared to something or someone else, and the pronoun ends the sentence. Always use a subject pronoun in an incomplete comparison.

2) Predicate nominatives are pronouns that follow to-be verbs and rename the subject in a clause. Always use a subject pronoun for a predicate nominative.

Exercise 32

Pronoun Case

Write the number of the correct pronoun in the blank before each sentence.

1. ___ Myrtle and (1) **she** (2) **her** went rock climbing yesterday.
2. ___ Ruben came to the movies with Sara and (1) **I** (2) **me**.
3. ___ He was the student (1) **who** (2) **whom** scored highest on the exam.
4. ___ I gave the ticket to the man (1) **who** (2) **whom** asked for it.
5. ___ It was (1) **I** (2) **me** who invited Sheila to the dance.
6. ___ I tried to outrun the dog, but it was much faster than (1) **I** (2) **me**.
7. ___ Because Larry was taller than (1) **I** (2) **me**, he was chosen first on the basketball court.
8. ___ He is the batter about (1) **who** (2) **whom** the pitcher was most worried.
9. ___ I'll give the award to (1) **whoever** (2) **whomever** I want.
10. ___ Julia and Sara like jazz, but Marty and (1) **I** (2) **me** prefer heavy metal.
11. ___ When asked about the practical joke, I confessed that the culprit was (1) **I** (2) **me**.
12. ___ Roland and (1) **he** (2) **him** went fishing in the pond.
13. ___ Kirby and (1) **I** (2) **me** asked to go with them.
14. ___ Matt, Parker, and Joe followed Kirby and (1) **I** (2) **me** to the pond.
15. ___ Roland asked, "(1) **Who** (2) **Whom** invited these guys?"
16. ___ Rita made more money than (1) **he** (2) **him**.
17. ___ (1) **We** (2) **Us** farmers must stick together to fight the new tax bill.
18. ___ The anti-tax rally was sponsored by (1) **we** (2) **us** farmers.
19. ___ No one cares more about the farmers than (1) **I** (2) **me**.
20. ___ Everybody forgets that it was (1) **I** (2) **me** who first thought of the anti-tax rally.

Exercise 33

Pronoun Case, Pronoun Agreement, and Subject Predicate Agreement

Write the number of the correct choice in the blank before each sentence.

1. ___ Most of the brothers will share (1) **his** (2) **their** dessert.
2. ___ Each of the brothers will share (1) **his** (2) **their** dessert.
3. ___ None of the brothers will share (1) **his** (2) **their** dessert.
4. ___ Anyone could misplace (1) **his** (2) **his or her** (3) **their** keys.
5. ___ Neither of the boys (1) **is** (2) **are** going to school tomorrow.
6. ___ Megan and (1) **she** (2) **her** went ice skating on the pond.
7. ___ Everyone at the meeting (1) **was** (2) **were** excited to meet Herbert.
8. ___ He was the runner (1) **who** (2) **whom** finished with the best time.
9. ___ The award for best actor was given to (1) **who** (2) **whom**?
10. ___ (1) **Who** (2) **Whom** received the award for best actor?
11. ___ I gave money to the man (1) **who** (2) **whom** asked for it.
12. ___ It was (1) **I** (2) **me** who invited Katherine to the meeting.
13. ___ Doug went to the park with Robin and (1) **I** (2) **me**.
14. ___ I tried to keep up with Doug, but he jogged much faster than (1) **I** (2) **me**.
15. ___ Aeronautics (1) **play** (2) **plays** an important role aircraft design.
16. ___ The answers to the riddle (1) **is** (2) **are** difficult to understand.
17. ___ Michelle is so much smarter than (1) **I** (2) **me**.
18. ___ He is the patient about (1) **who** (2) **whom** the doctor was most worried.
19. ___ I'll offer the job to (1) **whoever** (2) **whomever** deserves it the most.
20. ___ Fred made more money than (1) **he** (2) **him**.

Part 5

Style, Revision, and Quoting Sources

There is more to good writing than recognizing grammatical mistakes. Now that you understand the basics of grammar, it is time to turn our attention to matters of style, revision, and working the ideas of others into your writing.

Chapter 17

Style

Good writing is pleasurable to read and easy to follow. This is why style is so important. Here are some tips about style that can help to improve your writing.

1) Avoid wordiness in your writing. Be concise and to the point. If you can express an idea gracefully and thoroughly in ten words, don't use eleven words to get your point across. Provide detail in your writing, but make sure the detail you provide is relevant. Here are some tips to help you recognize and eliminate wordiness in your writing.

- Learn to recognize empty words. The most effective way to eliminate unnecessary words from your writing is to learn to recognize empty words that have little meaning in a sentence. Words like “that,” “very,” and “really” usually have little meaning and can be omitted from most sentences. After all, there's not much difference between “a good car” and “a really good car” or “a long way” and “a very long way.” Likewise, the word “that” is often unnecessary:

The doctor told him *that* he needed glasses.

The doctor told him he needed glasses.

- Learn to recognize empty phrases, phrases that possess no meaning. Sometimes when writers are compelled to sound formal in their writing, they start using empty phrases. Eliminate phrases that don't serve a purpose or mean something.

He was surprised *by the fact that* she gambled her entire paycheck.

He was surprised because she gambled her entire paycheck.

Upon the time of her arrival, she took her place on stage.
When she arrived, she took her place on stage.

• Do not use a lot of adverbs. Adverbs are modifiers that describe verbs. Adverbs can be useful, but choosing the right verb makes most adverbs unnecessary. Consider the use of adverbs in the following sentences, noting how using a specific, active verb eliminates the need for a descriptive adverb in each instance.

He walked *slowly* into the room.
He crept into the room.

He thought *carefully* about his decision.
He pondered his decision.

Don't try to totally eliminate adverbs from your writing, but don't overuse them either.

• Write in active voice. A sentence written in active voice follows a subject/verb/object pattern. Sentences using a object/verb/subject pattern are written in passive voice. Writing in passive voice requires more words to express the same ideas.

object verb subject

passive voice: The apple was eaten by the deer.

subject verb object

active voice: The deer ate the apple.

object verb subject

passive voice: The tornado was sighted by the cameraman.

subject verb object

active voice: The cameraman sighted the tornado.

Writing in active voice also places emphasis on the subject of the sentence. In a passive voice sentence, a reader must wait until

the end of the sentence to find out who or what performed the action of the verb.

- Avoid negative sentence constructions. Instead, make your sentences affirmative:

negative: Abortion should not be legal.

affirmative: Abortion should be illegal.

2) Use active verbs. Action verbs show action, so writing that uses action verbs is active. To-be verbs show that something “is.” How boring! Compare these two passages. The first contains to-be verbs while the second uses active verbs.

The Gulf of Mexico is a place where millions of vacationers go each year. The sand on the beaches is snow-white, and tourists are amazed by the clear waters. The Gulf is home to many forms of sea life, so the beaches are always full of happy fishermen.

The Gulf of Mexico draws millions of vacationers each year. The snow-white beaches and clear waters amaze visitors, and the Gulf teems with sea life, filling the beaches with happy fishermen.

As you can see, eliminating overused to-be verbs will force you to write more efficiently and can help to eliminate wordiness in your writing. Don't think you should try to eliminate all to-be verbs from your writing. Just be careful about overusing them.

Here's a list of to-be verbs to help you learn to spot them:

is	are	was
were	am	become
being	been	seem

3) Use transitions in your writing. Transitions work like road signs in your writing, showing contrasts, setting up comparisons, and reaffirming main ideas. Just as a stop sign warns drivers that a

stop is required, the transition “however” warns readers that the next sentence will contradict something stated in the last sentence. Consider the following passages. The first lacks transitions, while the second uses transitions to assist the reader in understanding relationships within the material presented:

One study showed that cancer is a disease caused more by lifestyle than by heredity. A cure for the disease is not likely. An effective treatment might be discovered to help treat symptoms.

One study showed that cancer is a disease caused more by lifestyle than by heredity. *As this data suggests*, a cure for the disease is not likely. *What is likely, however*, is that an effective treatment will be discovered to help treat symptoms.

Remember that paragraphs need to work together just like sentences. You wouldn’t write one sentence and follow it with another sentence from way out in left field without some sort of transitory comment, so follow the same rule when writing paragraphs. You might want to consider the breaks between paragraphs as good places to put transitory road signs to help guide your readers through your writing.

4) Make certain your modifiers are clear. Remember that modifiers like adjectives and adverbs tell us something about other words like nouns and verbs. When you proofread your writing, take a minute to identify all the adjectives and adverbs. Then, try to determine which words the adjectives and adverbs modify. If you have trouble recognizing the modified words, your modifiers are unclear.

Believe it or not, the placement of modifiers can drastically change the meaning of a sentence. Consider how the placement of the word “only” affects the meaning of the following sentence:

Only Marvin eats pancakes for dinner. (“*only*” modifies “*Marvin*”)

Marvin *only* eats pancakes for dinner. (“*only*” modifies “*eats*”)

Marvin eats *only* pancakes for dinner. (“*only*” modifies “*pancakes*”)

Marvin eats pancakes *only* for dinner. (“*only*” modifies “*pancakes*”)
Marvin eats pancakes for *only* dinner. (“*only*” modifies “*dinner*”)
Marvin eats pancakes for dinner *only*. (“*only*” modifies “*dinner*”)

Notice that moving the word “only” changes the way you read each sentence because you naturally use “only” to modify a nearby word in each sentence. As a result, the best way to clarify the relationship between a modifier and the word it modifies is to place the two words close to one another.

Incorrect: Already, the poison was in her veins.

Incorrect: The poison was in her veins already.

Correct: The poison was already in her veins. (“*already*” modifies the verb “*was*”)

Prepositional phrases (preposition + noun) should also be positioned near the words they modify to insure clear meaning.

Incorrect: He served sandwiches to the men on paper plates.
(*the men are on paper plates?*)

Correct: He served sandwiches on paper plates to the men.
(“*on paper plates*” describes “*sandwiches*”)

Incorrect: The boys were forced to sleep with the bus driver in an entirely different building. (*the bus driver is in an entirely different building?*)

Correct: The boys were forced to sleep in an entirely different building with the bus driver. (“*in an entirely different building*” describes where the boys slept)

In formal writing, it’s usually a good idea to avoid ending a sentence in a preposition.

Incorrect: He decided to return the present to the store it came from. (“*from*” is a preposition)

Correct: He decided to take the present back to the store from which it came.

Infinitives (to + verb) should not be split. That is, no words should come between “to” and the verb that follows it.

Incorrect: He decided to never visit his aunt again. (“to visit” is an infinitive)

Correct: He decided never to visit his aunt again.

5) Avoid clichés. Clichés are figures of speech that everyone knows. For example, “as blind as a bat” and “as cold as ice” are clichés. Writing that uses too many clichés lacks originality. When you use a cliché in your writing, you are using someone else’s idea. Even worse, everyone is already familiar with the idea. So, clichés are actually short cuts to thinking. You use them so you don’t have to think of an original way to describe something.

Using your own original ideas and descriptions adds life and excitement to your writing by providing your readers with new ideas and new ways of thinking about the world around them. Consider how these dead clichés are brought to life when new ideas and fresh descriptions are used in their places:

The flame flickered to life. (*not bad, but not exactly original*)

The flame spread its wings like a moth. (*much better, more original*)

Abner was chilled to the bone. He’d never been so cold in his life. (*cliché alert!*)

The cold was so deep in Abner that he knew he’d go to bed cold that night, wake up cold the next day. This cold would stay with him until his dying moment, and even then he would die with a blanket clutched tight around his neck. (*more words, but much more original, more interesting, more alive*)

Chapter 18

Revision

Ok, so you've completed your writing assignment, and now you're ready for a nice long break, huh? Not so fast—you're not quite finished yet. Now comes the most important step of all: revision.

Even famous writers who write for a living make mistakes. In fact, it's just about impossible for anyone to write anything and get it exactly right the first time. Think about it this way: writing is simply the act of recording your thoughts on paper. The benefit writing offers is that you have a chance to review these written thoughts and consider ways to make them better before you share them with others. It's sort of like rehearsing before giving a speech. You might review your written thoughts, for example, and find that you've overlooked a comma splice or that one of your sentences is wordy or unclear. You might even discover that the ideas you explain in your writing might work better in a different order or that you need to add another idea or leave an idea out.

This ability to improve your written thoughts before sharing them is the beauty of revision. However, revision can be difficult. Revising a piece of writing involves reviewing it closely and being aware of how the words work together to form sentences, how the sentences present ideas that are grouped in paragraphs, and finally, how the paragraphs work together to form an essay. The good news is you've already had plenty of revision practice. In every chapter of this book you've been presented with exercises. When you completed these exercises you were learning revision skills.

This chapter will focus on tips to help you with the revision process.

1) Print out a paper copy of your essay. It's much easier to track the changes you've made to a piece of writing when you can read it on paper. When you delete text on a computer screen, it's gone. On a piece of paper you can label the parts of speech in

your sentences if you need to or draw arrows from modifiers to nouns. Plus, it's not easy to stare at a computer screen for long periods of time. It's much easier to play close attention to a sheet of paper.

2) When examining your essay for grammatical errors, read each sentence individually. Read each sentence carefully and stop to think about it. Remember the lessons we've covered in each chapter of this book and apply them to each sentence in your essay.

- Identify the words that form the sentence.
- Locate the subject and verb to make sure they agree and so you can recognize the way the clauses and phrases work together. Are independent clauses joined correctly, working in such a way that there are no comma splices, run-ons, or fused sentences?
- Locate all pronouns, making certain they agree with their antecedents and follow proper case.
- Examine the punctuation used in the sentence. Are commas used correctly? Do possessive nouns have apostrophes?
- Think about the way the sentence is written. Are there any stylistic improvements that could be made to improve the sentence? Is the sentence wordy? Is it parallel? Does it contain active verbs?

3) Read your essay backwards. If you're having problems stopping to read each individual sentence in your essay, it probably means you're a good writer and that your writing naturally draws a reader from one sentence to the next. Sometimes it can help to read the last sentence of your essay first, then the next-to-last, etc. Reading an essay this way forces you to stop at the end of each sentence. Then it's easy to examine individual sentences.

4) Put your essay away for a while before revising it. Revising an essay you have just written is very difficult. Because the thoughts and ideas you are trying to convey are so fresh on your mind soon after you have completed an essay, you are likely to read sentences the way you intended them to sound instead of reading them the way they are actually written. As a result, putting your essay away for a day or two before revising it can help you to spot mistakes in your writing you might have overlooked earlier. In addition, this extra time will allow you to rethink your ideas and take a fresh look at your topic.

5) Have someone else proofread your work. Having a classmate read your work can also help to improve your grade on writing assignments. Maybe your weakness lies in using commas correctly. Perhaps you can find a classmate who is good with commas, but his or her sentences are too wordy. This classmate can help you recognize and correct comma mistakes in your writing as you help to eliminate wordiness from his or her essay.

Chapter 19

Citing Other Writers in Your Writing

It's time to learn how to incorporate the ideas of other writers in your writing. Often, writers must conduct research to complete a writing assignment. Good writers research their topics carefully and thoroughly. When the research is done, however, these writers must figure out how to work the rewards of their research into their own writing.

You must cite ideas borrowed from other writers. Ideas that must be cited include arguments, lines of reason, opinions, theories, etc. Citing these ideas simply means that you give the original author of the idea credit and document the source where the idea was found.

In this chapter you will learn how to work sources into your own writing and to cite these sources. In the next chapter, you'll learn how to document the cited sources in a works cited page.

There are two popular ways to format quoted material in essays and to organize works cited entries: **1) MLA (Modern Language Association) Style** and **2) APA (American Psychological Association) Style**.

1) MLA style is most often used to cite materials in essays concerned with the arts. Disciplines like literature, art, music, and drama usually use the MLA style of documentation.

2) APA style is most often used in writing about the sciences. Disciplines like psychology, sociology, biology, anthropology, and history often use the APA style of documentation.

Which Style Is Best to Learn?

Because the basic formats of the two styles are so similar, learning to document sources in both MLA and APA style at the same time is far too confusing. Instead, it's a better idea to learn the basics of one style of documentation and then learn the subtle differences between the two styles.

As a result, we will focus only on MLA style.

What Material Should Be Cited?

Cite any idea borrowed from someone else. There is one exception to this rule: you don't have to cite information borrowed from someone else if that information is common knowledge. **Common knowledge includes facts that are known by most people and are generally accepted as true.** For example, it's common knowledge that the Earth is spherical. Most people know this fact, and it is accepted as fact by nearly everyone. However, the idea that the world is 4 billion years old is less certain. Lots of people argue about the age of the planet, and setting the age at 4 billion is only theoretical, so the age of Earth is not common knowledge. Thus, you would cite a statement about the age of the Earth, but you don't need to cite a source regarding the fact that the Earth is round.

Be sure you cite each and every instance in which you use someone else's ideas in your writing. Remember that you don't have to use another writer's exact words to use that writer's ideas. There are three ways to use others' ideas: **(1) direct quote (2) paraphrase (3) summary.**

Quick Review

- You must cite ideas borrowed from other writers. Do not cite facts considered common knowledge.
- Common knowledge includes widely known generally accepted as true.
- There are three ways to use others' ideas: **(1) direct quote (2) paraphrase (3) summary.**

1) A Direct Quote uses another person's idea by quoting exactly what that person has written or said. When you quote someone, you copy a passage from another writer word for word. To use a direct quote in your writing:

- **DO NOT** change the direct quote in any way. It should appear in your essay just as it does in the original source. Don't change any of the words or punctuation.
- Enclose direct quotes in quotation marks. More than one sentence can fall inside a single set of quotation marks.
- Include the page number where the quote is found in parentheses at the end of the quote. For quotations from online sources, films, interviews, or audio recordings that don't use page numbers, use only the author's name. In direct quotes, the period comes after parentheses, not at end of sentence.
- Introduce the quote, using the author's name if possible. If you cannot use the author's name in the introduction of the quote, you must include his or her name with the page number in parentheses at the end of the quote. Use active verbs in present tense, "contends, maintains, argues," to introduce quotes.

Here's an example of how to work a direct quote into your own writing.

Original Source: Scientists agree that we are, perhaps uniquely among the earth's creatures, the worrying animal. We worry away our lives. We worry about work, about families, about illness. This is perhaps our greatest and most tragic ability. (*book by Lewis Thomas, page 233*)

Direct Quote: According to Lewis Thomas, "we are, perhaps uniquely among the earth's creatures, the worrying animal. We worry away our lives" (233).

Direct Quote: Thomas maintains that we are "the worrying animal" (233).

Direct Quote: Some scientists call humans "the worrying animal" and contend that we "worry away our lives" (Thomas 233). (*author is not mentioned in text, so include author in parentheses*)

Rules to remember when using direct quotes:

- You don't have to quote entire sentences. Just quote important ideas. Try to make quotes work smoothly within your sentences.
- You can use brackets to add to or make changes to direct quotes.
 - According to Bart Reiter, "the Texaco station [just outside Chicago] is one of the busiest in the nation" (89). (*bracketed phrase "just outside Chicago" added for clarity*)
 - "[O]ne of the busiest in the nation" is how the Texaco outside of Chicago is described by Bart Reiter. (*bracketed letter "O" shows that letter has been capitalized*)
- You can use ellipsis to indicate that material has been left out of a quote. Remember to put the ellipsis in brackets. Don't use ellipsis when leaving off a portion at the beginning or end of a quote. Only use ellipsis when leaving out a portion from the middle of a direct quote.
 - According to Lewis Thomas, "we are [. . .] the worrying animal" (42).

- Use ellipsis plus a period to indicate that a period has been omitted from a quote. The period means an entire sentence has been left out.
 - Byron Todd calls dogs “man’s most under-appreciated friend [. . .] and wonderful companion” (54).
- If you spot a mistake in a quote, include the mistake and put the word [sic] beside the mistake.
 - Ralph Peterson insists that “if you loved *Macbeth*, your [sic] going to love *Hamlet*” (102).
- Block Quote direct quotes over four lines long. DO NOT use quotation marks with block quotes. Indent them ten spaces instead. The period comes before parentheses at the end of the sentence.

Original Source:

Scientists agree that we are, perhaps uniquely among the earth’s creatures, the worrying animal. We worry away our lives. We worry about work, about families, about illness. This is perhaps our greatest and most tragic ability. (*book by Lewis Thomas, page 233*)

Block Quote:

According to Lewis Thomas:

Scientists agree that we are, perhaps uniquely among the earth’s creatures, the worrying animal. We worry away our lives. We worry about work, about families, about illness. This is perhaps our greatest and most tragic ability. (233)

2) A Paraphrase occurs when you use another writer’s idea in your writing, but you don’t use the other writer’s exact words. Sometimes it’s impossible to use a direct quote in your writing. Remember that quotes should combine with your own writing. If you can’t make a direct quote work smoothly within one of your sentences, paraphrase the quote. To paraphrase someone else’s idea in your writing:

- Change the words and punctuation in the original material any way you like, but be careful not to change the original idea too much.
- Do not use quotation marks. Only use quotation marks with direct quotes.
- Introduce the author of the idea being paraphrased and include page numbers in parentheses. Like a quote, period comes after parentheses, not at end of sentence.

Consider this example of how you might paraphrase a writer's idea within your own writing.

Direct Quote: Malcolm Howely insists that the “perfect search engine would order information by importance, would eliminate all irrelevant information, and would be simple to use. The perfect search engine does not exist” (42).

Paraphrase: Malcolm Howely explains that no search engine is perfect. He argues that a perfect search engine must be simple and must rank important information while eliminating irrelevant information (42).

3) A Summary occurs when you shorten someone else's idea and put it in your own words. To summarize someone else's idea:

- DO NOT use quotation marks.
- Introduce the author of the source and include page numbers.
- Period comes before parentheses at the end of the sentence.

Original Source: Scientists agree that we are, perhaps uniquely among the earth's creatures, the worrying animal. We worry away our lives. We worry about work, about families, about illness. This is perhaps our greatest and most tragic ability. (*book by Lewis Thomas, page 233*)

Summary: Lewis Thomas claims that the distinctly human ability to think tragically dooms us to worry constantly. (233)

Quick Review

1) A **direct quote** is using another person's idea by quoting directly what that person wrote or said.

- DO NOT change a direct quote in any way.
- Author's name should be used with a direct quote, and page number where quote appears go in parentheses at end of sentence containing a quote. Period comes after parentheses.
- Use brackets to indicate changes to a direct quote.
- Use ellipsis to show a section of a direct quote has been omitted.
- Use "sic" to indicate a mistake in a direct quote.
- Block quote direct quotes over four lines long. Indent block quotes, but don't use quotation marks. Periods come at end of sentence in a block quote, not after the parentheses.

2) A **paraphrase** occurs when you use another writer's idea in your writing, but you don't use the other writer's exact words.

- A paraphrase should express the same idea as the original source, just using different words.
- DO NOT use quotation marks with paraphrases.
- Page number in parentheses required. Period comes after the parentheses.

3) A **summary** occurs when you shorten someone else's idea and put it in your own words. To summarize someone else's idea:

- DO NOT use quotation marks.
- Introduce the author of the source and include page numbers.
- Period comes before parentheses at the end of the sentence.

Tips About Citing Sources in Your Writing

1) DO NOT incorporate too many sources in your writing. Think of your writing as a battle with your audience. Your goal is to "conquer" your audience's way of thinking, influencing it so that it matches your own. DO NOT fight this battle on the works cited page. That is, don't just cite authorities to make your argument. You should propose

a logical argument which might be supported by other sources, but don't rely solely on quoted material to prove your point. Remember that you don't quote from other sources just to prove that the quoted material is true. Instead, you are using the ideas quoted to advance your own argument.

2) As a rule, put as little information as possible in the parenthesis at the end of your in-text citations. If a source is worth quoting, its author is worth introducing in text.

3) Use “three part” quotations whenever possible. Part 1) introduce the author. Part 2) quote/paraphrase/summarize the source. Part 3) provide a “coming away” statement—say something about the quotation, make a judgment, draw a conclusion, etc.

4) Instead of filling your essay with lots of long quotes, break those quotes up by paraphrasing and summarizing some of them. After all, your writing should be just as elegant and graceful as the source you are citing, so go ahead and paraphrase or summarize and save direct quotes for those instances when an author writes something that can't be improved upon stylistically.

5) Use present tense verbs to introduce quotations even though the remainder of your essay is written in past tense. For example, Robinson maintains/Harrison argues/Perkinson insists.

6) Never end a paragraph with quote, paraphrase, or summary. Instead, include a coming away statement which explains the cited material or establishes the importance of the cited material to your argument.

Exercise 34

Quoting, Block Quoting, Paraphrasing, and Summarizing

Read the passage and follow the directions below.

Melungeons are one of anthropology's great mysteries. When the first European settlers explored the Appalachian region hundreds of years ago, they discovered a community of dark-skinned people living in near isolation. Some Melungeons claimed Portugese descent. Others claimed Native American heritage. Most Melungeons had no idea of their ancestry. Sadly, the origin of the Melungeon people is still a mystery today.

—Geoffrey Hamilton
page 45

1. Write a sentence that makes use of a direct quotation from the passage above. Be careful to punctuate your quote correctly.
2. Write a sentence that makes use of a paraphrase from the passage above. Be careful to punctuate your paraphrase correctly.
3. Write a paragraph that summarizes the passage above. Be careful to punctuate your summary correctly.
4. Write a sentence that makes use of a block quote (4 lines or longer) from the passage above. Be careful to punctuate your block quote correctly.
5. Write a sentence that makes use of a paraphrase from the passage above. Be careful to punctuate your paraphrase correctly.

Chapter 20

Creating an MLA Works Cited Page

Now that you know how to create an in-text citation for quoted material, it's time to learn how to create a reference page. When you cite quoted material in an essay, your goal is to provide your reader with the author's name and the page number on which the material can be found. The purpose of your works cited page is to give your reader enough publication information about your sources so that he or she can find the sources of your information.

Once again, we will focus solely on MLA documentation of sources. Learning to document sources is really nothing more than following examples found in a guidebook. Consulting a book about APA documentation is no different than consulting a book about MLA documentation. The main concern here is that you learn to use a guidebook to create a works cited page.

Because documentation rules can change over time, it is important that you use an up-to-date guide to format your MLA works cited entries. A number of publishers offer thorough guides to MLA format, but for now let's focus on some of the most important features of MLA style and some of the most common types of works cited.

Setting Up an MLA Works Cited Page

An MLA works cited list should come at the end of your essay. Begin at the top of a new page, titling the page "Works Cited." Next, simply add an MLA entry for every work you cite in your essay. The entries should be listed in alphabetical order according to the first letter of each entry. Each entry should use a hanging indent.

A **hanging indent** is the opposite of conventional indenting used for paragraphs. As conventional indentation requires that you indent the first line of each paragraph, a hanging indent requires that

you indent every line but the first. The paragraph you are reading follows hanging indent format.

So, an MLA works cited entry would look like this:

Marrianes, Audrey. Men Who Lie and the Women Who Believe Them. Berkley: California UP, 2006.

Formatting MLA Works Cited Entries

MLA works cited entries follow a general format which requires four pieces of information: (1) author (2) title (3) publication information (4) date. Obviously, this format works better when creating entries for books, magazines, and newspapers than it does for creating entries for emails, lectures, or audio recordings. No matter what you're citing, however, it's always best to follow the guidelines in a reputable handbook when creating a works cited page. This chapter will show you how to create entries for some of the most common types of works you're likely to cite in your writing. The list includes samples for books, periodicals (newspapers, magazines, journals), internet sources, and miscellaneous sources. To use the list to create a works cited list, simply determine what your source is, find an example of your source on the list, and copy the format, substituting the information from your source for the information of the source on the list.

Be certain to examine each sample entry carefully and to follow the examples exactly. Remember that each punctuation mark is important in an MLA works cited entry, so don't leave out any punctuation found in the examples. Likewise, don't add any punctuation not found in the examples.

Books

Books are generally the easiest works to cite. Simply supply the four required pieces of information described above:

- 1) List the author first, putting the last name first and the first name last.
- 2) List the book's title next. Make sure you underline or italicize book titles.
- 3) Next, list the book's publication information beginning with the city where the book was published (never include state or country). Follow the city with a colon and list the publisher. Choose one or two key words to list for the publisher. For example, if the publisher is W. W. Norton, list only Norton. For Harper Row, just list Harper. For Parker Sons, however, list Parker Sons since both words are of equal importance in the publishing company's name. For university presses, list the university followed by UP (University Press). For example, Yale University Press = Yale UP.
- 4) Finally, close your entry with the year the book was published.

So, an MLA works cited entry for a book would follow this format:

(1)
(2)
(3)
(4)
 Last name, First name. Title of Book. City: Publisher, Year.

Book with One Author:

(1)
(2)
(3)
(4)
 Williams, Randolph. America's New Economy. Ithaca: Jameson, 2005.

Book with More Than One Author:

When creating an entry for a book with more than one author, reverse only the first name. Names of second and third authors are listed first-name-first, last-name-last. Be sure to separate names of authors with commas and to use “, and” before last author's name.

last
first
first
last
 Harmore, Alice, and Willy Rubenson. Racial Hate in the American South. Tucson: Arizona UP, 2004.

Murdock, Allen, Bob Baraccas, and George Hannibal. The A-Team: Great TV of the '80s. Boston: Harvard UP, 2004.

For a work with more than three authors, list only the first author, then “et al” which means “and others” in Latin.

Smith, Thomas, et al. Flag Burning Hippies: America’s Young Protest. Artville: Red Wagon, 1973.

Book with an Editor:

When documenting an edited book, follow the format for other books, but substitute the editor’s name in place of the author. Use a period, a comma, and the abbreviation “ed.” after the editor’s name.

Rondell, Larry., ed. The Captain Goes Down with the Ship. Fresno: High Street, 2006.

When citing a book with both an author and an editor or translator, list the author’s name first. Then include the editor or translator’s name after the book’s title. Use the abbreviation “Ed.” before the editor’s name and “Trans.” before the translator’s name.

author editor
Barnes, Roland. Fabulous Finds. Ed. James Anderson. Atlanta: Front Street, 1998.

Eduardo, Phillipe. Pre-Columbian Art and Architecture. Trans. Rita Velacruz. San Antonio: New Mission, 2003.

Story, Article, Essay, Poem, etc Found in a Book:

- 1) Begin with the author of the article, poem, story, etc.
- 2) Then put the title of the essay, poem, story, etc in quotation marks.
- 3) Next, list the title of the book.

- 4) Then list the editor of the book if it has one. List the name first-name-first, last-name-last, and use the abbreviation “Ed.” before the name.
- 5) Then list the city and publisher as you would for any other book.
- 6) List the date in which the book was published.
- 7) Finally, list the pages of the book that contain the article, poem, story, etc.

(1)
(2)
(3)

Hooten, Jameson. “Credit Card Debt and College Freshmen.” Money Woes.
(4)
(5)
(6)
(7)
 Ed. Hershel Camden. Raleigh: Trinity, 1999. 417-45.

article author
article title
book title

Bufont, Lamont. “Why I’m Not Going to Watch TV.” What Is the World Coming To? Cincinnati: U Cincinnati P, 1982. 12-56.

Periodicals

Periodicals are written sources published periodically. That is, periodicals are printed sources sold at regular intervals: a weekly newspaper, a monthly magazine, a yearly pamphlet.

MLA works cited entries for periodicals follow the same basic format used to document books: 1) author, 2) title, 3) publication information, 4) date. Unlike books, however, periodicals are usually organized as a collection of articles or essays. Because periodicals are also published more frequently than books, the publication process of periodicals differs from books. These differences between books and periodicals are reflected in how each source is documented.

Newspapers

When citing a newspaper:

- 1) Begin with the author of the article.
- 2) Put the article title in quotation marks.
- 3) Underline the newspaper title.

- 4) List the date the newspaper was published in date, month, year format.
- 5) Include page numbers where article appears. For newspapers use section and page “C1,” “B3,” etc. For articles appearing on more than one page, use section, page + “B3+,” “A1+.”

(1)
(2)
(3)
 Carlson, Arnie. “Prescription Drug Prices on the Rise Again.” Toledo Times
(4)
(5)
 12 Dec. 2005: A2+.

If an edition is listed, include that information between the date the newspaper was published and the section and page number of the article.

McAndrews, Phillis L. “Local Singer, Songwriter Dies in Plane Crash.” San Fernando Gazette 2 July 1981, state ed.: B4.

Magazines are published much like newspapers. To document a magazine:

- 1) List author of magazine article.
- 2) Put the magazine article title in quotation marks.
- 3) Underline the magazine title.
- 4) List date of magazine’s publication here. For monthly magazines, include month and year. For weekly magazines, list date, month, year.
- 5) Include page numbers where article appears.

Monthly Magazines:

(1)
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)
 Alexander, Jonah. “Uncovering the Big Bang.” Discover. Aug. 2005: 23-56.

Weekly Magazines:

(1)
(2)
 Porter, Jermaine. “Growing Your Own Delicious Mushrooms.”
(3)
(4)
(5)
Modern Gardener. 6 March 1999: 34-8.

Journals

A journal is a periodical usually issued four times a year. Journals cater to readers with very specific interests. While you won't find too many journals in bookstores, they are important library sources. When citing a journal, you must first determine whether the journal is continuously paged from issue to issue or whether each issue of the journal begins on page one.

To document a **Consecutively Paged Journal**:

- 1) List author of the journal article.
- 2) Put the article title in quotation marks.
- 3) Underline the journal title.
- 4) Include the volume number here. Volume number can be found on the publication page at the front of the journal.
- 5) Put the year the journal was published in parentheses. For monthly magazines, include month and year. For weekly magazines, list date, month, year.
- 6) Include page numbers where article appears.

(1) Walters, Randolph. "Preadolescent Aggression." (2) Child Psychology. (3)
(4) (5) (6)
4 (2003): 453-512

To document a **Journal in Which Each Issue begins at Page One**:

- 1) List author of the journal article.
- 2) Put the article title in quotation marks.
- 3) Underline the journal title.
- 4) Include the volume and issue number here.
- 5) Put the year the journal was published in parentheses. For monthly magazines, include month and year. For weekly magazines, list date, month, year.
- 6) Include page numbers where article appears.

(1) Greer, Timothy. "Viewpoints on Partial-Birth Abortion."
(2)
(3) American Ethics. 4.1 (2003): 34-57.
(4) (5) (6)

Internet Sources

The Internet allows you to do extensive research from nearly anywhere. Web pages, online encyclopedias, online books, online journals, and research databases are all available online. However, you must be careful when doing Internet research. Make sure the information you find on web pages (especially personal web pages) is accurate and reliable.

Web Pages

To document a web page:

- 1) List the author of the cited information. If no author is listed, begin your works cited entry with the title.
- 2) Put the title of the web page in quotation marks. This is the title of the page you cite from, not the name of the website.
- 3) Underline the website name.
- 4) Indicate the day the web page was posted. The post date is usually found somewhere near the bottom of the page.
- 5) List the date you accessed the information.
- 6) Put the web address in angle brackets. < > Include the entire web address.

(1) Malcolm, Gerald. "Smallpox Symptoms." Web Doctor. 4 March 2004.
(2) (3) (4)
(5) (6)
7 Jan. 2005 <<http://smallpoxsymptoms12.webdoc/online/prognosis>>.

(1) no author (2)
(5)

(3)

(4)

“Trillium Root.” Natural Healing Plants Page. 4 April 2000. 23 May 2006

(6)

<<http://trilliumroot.plants~a-z>>.

Miscellaneous Sources

This list includes works like encyclopedias, audio recordings, films, television programs, interviews, letters, and emails, works that don't fit in any single category. The information required to document them is similar to the information required to document other sources.

Encyclopedias

To document an encyclopedia entry:

- 1) List author of the entry. Sometimes only author's initials are given, but you can usually find author's names on a page near the beginning of the encyclopedia volume.
- 2) Put the entry title in quotation marks.
- 3) Underline the encyclopedia title.
- 4) Include the edition and year of the encyclopedia.

(1)

(2)

(3)

(4)

Larder, Elaine. “Buddhism.” Worldbook. 12th ed. 1999.

Audio Recordings

To document a CD, MP3, or other audio recording:

- 1) List the performer or band's name.
- 2) Put the song title in quotation marks.
- 3) Underline the album title.
- 4) List the recording company.
- 5) List the year the recording was issued.

(1)

(2)

(3)

(4)

(5)

Nirvana. “Lithium.” Nevermind. Geffen. 1990.

Films

To document a film:

- 1) Underline the title of the film.
- 2) List the director of the film, placing the abbreviation Dir. Before the director's name. Use first-name-first, last-name-last format for director's name.
- 3) Include the name of the production company.
- 4) List the year the film was released.

(1) (2) (3) (4)
Scarface. Dir. Brian DePalma. Universal Studios. 1983.

Television Programs

To document a television program:

- 1) Put the episode title in quotation marks. Skip this part if there is no episode title.
- 2) Underline title of the television show.
- 3) List narrator (if there is one) and producer. Use first-name-first, last-name-last format. Use the abbreviation "Narr." For narrator and "Prod." For producer.
- 4) Name of channel where the show aired. Use station or channel name, not the number.
- 5) Date the show aired.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
"Man Hands." Seinfeld. Prod. Nicholas Reddington. NBC. 24 Jan. 1992.

(1) (2) (3)
"Marriage Customs." Taboo. Narr. Bret Plankton. Prod. Neil Laskas.
(4) (5)
National Geographic Channel. 2 April 2004.

Interviews

For **interviews you conduct** (interviews in which you ask someone questions and receive answers):

- 1) List name of the person interviewed. Use last-name-first, first-name-last format.
- 2) For face-to-face interview write “Personal interview.” For interview conducted over the phone write “Telephone interview.” For interview conducted via email write “Email interview.”
- 3) List the date the interview occurred.

(1) Austin, Samford. Personal interview. 20 Dec. 1997.

To document an **interview conducted by someone else**:

Simply document the source of the interview. If you read the interview in a magazine, document it as a magazine article. If you read the interview on a web page, document the web page. The person conducting the interview is the author. If you watch the interview on TV, document the TV program. Make it clear that you’re quoting from an interview in your in-text citation.

Emails and Letters

To document an email or letter:

- 1) List the name of the person who wrote the email or letter.
- 2) Put the subject of the email or letter in quotation marks.
- 3) List the name of the person who received the email or letter. For emails, write “Email to (receiver’s name).” For letters, write “Letter to (receiver’s name).”
- 4) List the date the email or letter was received.

(1) (2) (3)
Holland, Marcus. "New Dress Code." Email to Felicia DeLoren.
(4)
3 Oct 2006.

(1) (2) (3)
Estill, Fox M. "Reply to Complaint Letter." Letter to Holland Marcus.
(4)
5 Oct 2006.

Exercise 35

Documenting Sources

Using the information provided, create MLA works cited entries.

(1) A book titled Bears written by Maria Goldsmith and Harriet Siverstein. The book was published in Cleveland, Ohio by Horizon Publishing Company in 2005. The book is 250 pages long.

(2) A television show titled Wilderness Crusaders. The episode title is “Lewis and Clark.” The show was produced by Harvey Sammons and aired June, 4 1989 on CBS.

(3) An article titled “Global Concerns About Global Warming” which appeared in volume 2, issue 1 of the journal Government Watchdog. Each issue of the journal begins with page one. The journal was published in Pocatello, Idaho in 2003. The author of the article is Robert Hammonds. The article appeared on pages 34-52.

(4) A newspaper article titled “Young Man Wins Big.” The article appeared in the August 12, 2003 edition of The Hartfield Times. The article had one photo and appeared on page B2.

(5) An interview with Hugh Hefner conducted by Laurel Simpson on June 12 1967. The interview appeared in a March 1992 issue of Time on pages 39-47. The interview was titled “A Conversation with Hugh.”

(6) An email from Janice Rawlings. The subject of the email was “New International Laws.” The email was received by Cody Fannin on December 23 2003.

(7) An essay from a book titled Bear Attack. The essay was written by Holland Smith and is titled “Grizzly Encounters.” The book was published in 1972 by Bay Press in San Fransisco. The essay appears on pages 22-32. The book was edited by Sleepy Jones.

(8) A web page titled “Growing Bigger Tomatoes.” The page appeared on the Gardener’s Friend website. The page was posted on June 4 2003 and accessed on July 8 2004. The address is: <http://gardenersfriend.net.12/tomatoes./post>.

(9) A letter from Roland Toggle to Rebecca Toggle. The letter was received on May 4 1982.

(10) Book titled Hair by Farlin McNabby. The book was printed in Boise, Idaho by Marlin and Sons in 1987.