Handbook of Definitions and Rules
**PARTS OF SPEECH**

**Nouns**

1. A **singular noun** is a word that names one person, place, thing, or idea: brother, classroom, piglet, and joy. A **plural noun** names more than one person, place, thing, or idea: brothers, classrooms, piglets, and joys.

2. To help you determine whether a word in a sentence is a noun, try adding it to the following sentences. Nouns will fit in at least one of these sentences:
   
   - I know something about ________. I know something about a(n) ________.
   - I know something about brothers. I know something about a classroom.

3. A **collective noun** names a group. When the collective noun refers to the group as a whole, it is singular. When it refers to the individual group members, the collective noun is plural.
   
   - The class meets two days a week. (singular)
   - The board of trustees come from all walks of life. (plural)

4. A **common noun** names a general class of people, places, things, or ideas: soldier, country, month, or theory. A **proper noun** specifies a particular person, place, thing, event, or idea. Proper nouns are always capitalized: General Schwartzkopf, America, July, or Big Bang.

5. A **concrete noun** names an object that occupies space or that can be recognized by any of the senses: tuba, music, potato, and aroma. An **abstract noun** names an idea, a quality, or a characteristic: courage, sanity, power, and memory.

6. A **possessive noun** shows possession, ownership, or the relationship between two nouns: Raul’s house, the cat’s fur, and the girls’ soccer ball.

**Pronouns**

1. A **pronoun** takes the place of a noun, a group of words acting as a noun, or another pronoun.

2. A **personal pronoun** refers to a specific person or thing. **First person** personal pronouns refer to the speaker, **second person** pronouns refer to the one spoken to, and **third person** pronouns refer to the one spoken about.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominate Case</th>
<th>Possessive Case</th>
<th>Objective Case</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Person, Singular</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>my, mine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Person, Plural</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>our, ours</td>
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<tr>
<td>Second Person, Singular</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>your, yours</td>
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<tr>
<td>Second Person, Plural</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>your, yours</td>
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<tr>
<td>Third Person, Singular</td>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td>his, her, hers, its</td>
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<tr>
<td>Third Person, Plural</td>
<td>they</td>
<td>their, theirs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. A **reflexive pronoun** refers to the subject of the sentence. An **intensive pronoun** adds emphasis to a noun or another pronoun. A **demonstrative pronoun** points out specific persons, places, things, or ideas.

   - Reflexive: They psyched themselves up for the football game.
   - Intensive: Freddie himself asked Julie out.
   - Demonstrative: That is a good idea! Those are my friends.

4. An **interrogative pronoun** is used to form questions. A **relative pronoun** is used to introduce a subordinate clause. An **indefinite pronoun** refers to persons, places, or things in a more general way than a noun does.

   - Interrogative: Which is your choice? With whom were you playing video games?
5. The **antecedent** of a pronoun is the word or group of words referred to by the pronoun.

Ben rode his bike to school. (*Ben* is the antecedent of *his.*)

### Verbs

1. A **verb** is a word that expresses action or a state of being and is necessary to make a statement. Most verbs will fit one or more of these sentences:

   - We _______.
   - We ________ loyal.
   - We ________ it.
   - It ________.

   - We sleep.
   - We remain loyal.
   - We love it!
   - It snowed.

2. An **action verb** tells what someone or something does. The two types of action verbs are transitive and intransitive. A **transitive verb** is followed by a word or words that answer the question **what?** or **whom?** An **intransitive verb** is not followed by a word that answers what? or whom?

   - **Transitive:** Children trust their parents. The puppy carried the bone away.
   - **Intransitive:** The team played poorly. The light burned brightly.

3. A **linking verb** links, or joins, the subject of a sentence with an adjective, a noun, or a pronoun.

   - The concert was loud. (adjective)
   - I am a good card player. (noun)

4. A **verb phrase** consists of a main verb and all its **auxiliary**, or helping, verbs.

   - My stomach has been growling all morning. I am waiting for a letter.

5. Verbs have four **principal parts** or forms: base, past, present participle, and past participle.

   - **Base:** I eat.
   - Present Participle: I am eating.
   - **Past:** I ate.
   - Past Participle: I have eaten.

6. The principal parts are used to form six verb tenses. The **tense** of a verb expresses time.

   - **Simple Tenses**
     - Present Tense: She eats. (present or habitual action)
     - Past Tense: She ate. (action completed in the past)
     - Future Tense: She will eat. (action to be done in the future)

   - **Perfect Tenses**
     - Present Perfect Tense: She has eaten. (action done at some indefinite time or still in effect)
     - Past Perfect Tense: She had eaten. (action completed before some other past action)
     - Future Perfect Tense: She will have eaten. (action to be completed before some future time)

7. Irregular verbs form their past and past participle without adding -ed to the base form.

   __**PRINCIPAL PARTS OF IRREGULAR VERBS**__

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base Form</th>
<th>Past Form</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Base Form</th>
<th>Past Form</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
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<tr>
<td>be</td>
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<td>eat</td>
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<td>eaten</td>
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</table>
8. **Progressive forms** of verbs, combined with a form of be, express a continuing action. **Emphatic forms**, combined with a form of do, add emphasis or form questions.

Kari is scratching the cat. Loni has been washing the walls.

We do support our hometown heroes. (present) He did want that dinner. (past)

9. The **voice** of a verb shows whether the subject performs the action or receives the action of the verb. The **active voice** occurs when the subject performs the action. The **passive voice** occurs when the action of the verb is performed on the subject.

The owl swooped upon its prey. (active) The ice cream was scooped by the cashier. (passive)

10. A verb can express one of three moods. The **indicative mood** makes a statement or asks a question. The **imperative mood** expresses a command or request. The **subjunctive mood** indirectly expresses a demand, recommendation, suggestion, statement of necessity, or a condition contrary to fact.

I am overjoyed. (indicative) Stop the car. (imperative)

If I were angry, I would not have let you in. (subjunctive)

**Adjectives**

1. An **adjective** modifies a noun or pronoun by giving a descriptive or specific detail. Adjectives can usually show comparisons. (See Using Modifiers Correctly on pages 9 and 10.)

   cold winter colder winter coldest winter

2. Most adjectives will fit this sentence:

   The _______ one looks very _________.

   The **dusty** one looks very **old**.

3. Articles are the adjectives a, an, and the. Articles do not meet the above test for adjectives.
4. A **proper adjective** is formed from a proper noun and begins with a capital letter. 
   Marijka wore a **Ukrainian** costume. He was a **Danish** prince.

5. An adjective used as an **object complement** follows and describes a direct object.
   My aunt considers me **funny**.

**Adverbs**

1. An **adverb** modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Most adverbs can show comparisons. (See Using Modifiers Correctly on pages 9 and 10.)
   a. Adverbs that tell how, when, where, or to what degree modify verbs or verbals.
      - The band stepped **lively**. (how)
      - Maria writes **frequently**. (when)
      - Put the piano **here**. (where)
      - We were **thoroughly** entertained. (to what degree)
   b. Adverbs of degree strengthen or weaken the adjectives or other adverbs that they modify.
      - A **very** happy fan cheered. (modifies adjective)
      - She spoke **too** fast. (modifies adverb)

2. Many adverbs fit these sentences:
   - She thinks _____.
   - She thinks _____ fast.
   - She _____ thinks fast.
   - She thinks **quickly**.
   - She thinks **unusually** fast.
   - She **seldom** thinks fast.

**Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections**

1. A **preposition** shows the relationship of a noun or a pronoun to some other word. A **compound preposition** is made up of more than one word.
   - The first group of students arrived. They skated **in spite of** the cold weather.

2. Some common prepositions include these: about, above, across, after, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, beyond, but, by, concerning, down, during, except, for, from, into, like, near, of, off, on, out, outside, over, past, round, since, through, till, to, toward, under, underneath, until, up, upon, with, within, without.

3. A **conjunction** is a word that joins single words or groups of words. A **coordinating conjunction** joins words or groups of words that have equal grammatical weight. Correlative conjunctions work in pairs to join words and groups of words of equal weight. A **subordinating conjunction** joins two clauses in such a way as to make one grammatically dependent on the other.
   - Coordinating conjunction: He **and** I talked for hours.
   - Correlative conjunctions: Russ wants **either** a cat **or** a dog.
   - Subordinating conjunction: We ate lunch **when** it was ready.

4. A **conjunctive adverb** clarifies a relationship.
   - He did not like cold weather; **nevertheless**, he shoveled the snow.

5. An **interjection** is an unrelated word or phrase that expresses emotion or exclamation.
   - **Wow**, that was cool! **Aha!** You fell right into my trap!

**PARTS OF THE SENTENCE**

**Subjects and Predicates**

1. The **simple subject** is the key noun or pronoun that tells what the sentence is about. A **compound subject** is made up of two or more simple subjects that are joined by a conjunction and have the same verb.
   - My **father** snores. My **mother** and I can’t sleep.
2. The simple predicate is the verb or verb phrase that expresses the essential thought about the subject of the sentence. A compound predicate is made up of two or more verbs or verb phrases that are joined by a conjunction and have the same subject.

The night was cold. The guests sang and danced in the flower garden.

3. The complete subject consists of the simple subject and all the words that modify it.

The bright lights of the city burned intensely. The cheerful, soothing fire kept us warm.

4. The complete predicate consists of the simple predicate and all the words that modify it or complete its meaning.

Dinosaurs died out 65 million years ago. The sun provides heat for the earth.

5. Usually the subject comes before the predicate in a sentence. In inverted sentences, all or part of the predicate precedes the subject.

There are two muffins on the plate. Over the field soared the glider.

Complements

1. A complement is a word or a group of words that complete the meaning of the verb. There are four kinds of complements: direct objects, indirect objects, object complements, and subject complements.


   Sammi ate the turkey. (Sammi ate what?)
   Carlos watched his sister in the school play. (Carlos watched whom?)

3. An indirect object receives what the direct object names.

   Marie wrote June a letter. George Washington gave his troops orders.

4. A subject complement follows a subject and a linking verb and identifies or describes the subject.

   A predicate nominative is a noun or pronoun that follows a linking verb and further identifies the subject. A predicate adjective follows a linking verb and further describes the subject.

   Predicate Nominative: The best football player is Jacob.
   Predicate Adjective: The people have been very patient.

5. An object complement describes or renames a direct object.

   Object Complement: Ami found the man handsome.
   Object Complement: Carlo thought the woman a genius.

PHRASES

1. A phrase is a group of words that acts in a sentence as a single part of speech.

2. A prepositional phrase is a group of words that begins with a preposition and usually ends with a noun or a pronoun called the object of the preposition. A prepositional phrase can modify a noun or a pronoun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

   One of my favorite meals is pigs in a blanket. (modifies the noun pigs)
   The supersonic jet soared into the sky. (modifies the verb soared)
   The love of a household pet can be valuable for a family. (modifies the adjective valuable)
   The child reads well for a six-year-old. (modifies the adverb well)

3. An appositive is a noun or a pronoun that is placed next to another noun or pronoun to identify it or give more information about it. An appositive phrase is an appositive plus its modifiers.

   My grandfather Géza takes me fishing. C.S. Lewis, my favorite author, lived in England.
4. A **verbal** is a verb form that functions in a sentence as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. A **verbal phrase** is a verbal plus any complements and modifiers.
   a. A **participle** is a verbal that functions as an adjective: Gary comforted the **crying** baby.
   b. A **participial phrase** contains a participle plus any complements or modifiers: **Thanking everyone**, my uncle began to carve the turkey.
   c. A **gerund** is a verbal that ends with -ing. It is used in the same way a noun is used: **Skiing** is a popular sport.
   d. A **gerund phrase** is a gerund plus any complements or modifiers: **Singing the national anthem** is traditional at many sports events.
   e. An **infinitive** is a verbal that is usually preceded by the word to. It is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb: I never learned **to dance**. (noun) She has an errand **to run**. (adjective) I will be happy **to help**. (adverb)
   f. An **infinitive phrase** contains an infinitive plus any complements or modifiers: My father woke up **to watch the news on television**.

5. An **absolute phrase** consists of a noun or a pronoun that is modified by a participle or a participial phrase but has no grammatical relation to the sentence. **His legs terribly tired**, Honori sat down.

**CLAUSES AND SENTENCE STRUCTURE**

1. A **clause** is a group of words that has a subject and a predicate and is used as a sentence or part of a sentence. There are two types of clauses: main and subordinate. A **main clause** has a subject and a predicate and can stand alone as a sentence. A **subordinate clause** has a subject and a predicate, but it cannot stand alone as a sentence.
   
   **The book bored me** until I read Chapter 5.

2. There are three types of subordinate clauses: adjective, adverb, and noun.
   a. An **adjective clause** is a subordinate clause that modifies a noun or a pronoun. The students **who stayed after school for help** did well on the test.
   b. An **adverb clause** is a subordinate clause that modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. It tells when, where, how, why, to what extent, or under what conditions. **When the sun set**, everyone watched from the window. (modifies a verb) Today is warmer than **yesterday was**. (modifies an adjective)
   c. A **noun clause** is a subordinate clause used as a noun. **Who will become president** has been declared. I now remember what I need to buy.

3. Main and subordinate clauses can form four types of sentences. A **simple sentence** has only one main clause and no subordinate clauses. A **compound sentence** has two or more main clauses. A **complex sentence** has one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. A **compound-complex sentence** has more than one main clause and at least one subordinate clause.
   
   **Simple**: The stars fill the sky.
   **Compound**: The plane landed, and the passengers left.
   **Complex**: Although the children found the letter, they couldn’t read it.
   **Compound-Complex**: The earth is bountiful; we may destroy it if we abuse it.
4. A sentence that makes a statement is classified as a **declarative sentence**: The Cleveland Browns are my favorite team. An **imperative sentence** gives a command or makes a request: Please go to the dance with me. An **interrogative sentence** asks a question: Who would abandon a family pet? An **exclamatory sentence** expresses strong emotion: Look out!

**SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT**

1. A verb must agree with its subject in person and number.
   - Doli *runs*. (singular)
   - Doli and Abay *run*. (plural)
   - He *is* singing. (singular)
   - They *are* singing. (plural)

2. In **inverted sentences** the subject follows the verb. The sentence may begin with a prepositional phrase, the words there or here, or the verb form of do.
   - Out of the bushes *sprang* the leopard.
   - There *is* never enough time.
   - Do those pigs eat leftover food?

3. Do not mistake a word in a prepositional phrase for the subject.
   - The boss of the employees *works* very hard. (The verb *works* tells the action of the boss.)

4. Make the verb in a sentence agree with the subject, not with the predicate nominative.
   - Her problem *was* the twins.
   - The twins *were* her problem.

5. A title is always singular, even if nouns in the title are plural.
   - *The War of the Worlds* was a radio broadcast that caused widespread panic.

6. Subjects combined with and or both use plural verbs unless the parts are of a whole unit.
   - When compound subjects are joined with or or nor, the verb agrees with the subject listed last.
   - Chocolate, strawberry, and vanilla *are* common ice cream flavors.
   - Peanut butter and jelly *is* a good snack.
   - Neither books nor a briefcase *is* needed.

7. Use a singular verb if the compound subject is preceded by the words many a, every, or each.
   - Every dog and cat *needs* to be cared for.
   - Many a young man has stood here.

8. A subject remains singular or plural regardless of any intervening expressions.
   - Gloria, as well as the rest of her family, *was* late.
   - The players, accompanied by the coach, *enter* the field.

9. A verb must agree in number with an indefinite pronoun subject.
   - Always singular: each, either, neither, one, everyone, everybody, everything, no one, nobody, nothing, anyone, anybody, anything, someone, somebody, and something.
   - Always plural: several, few, both, and many.
   - Either singular or plural: some, all, any, most, and none.
   - Is any of the lemonade *left*?
   - Are any of the biscuits *burnt*?

10. When the subject of an adjective clause is a relative pronoun, the verb in the clause must agree with the antecedent of the relative pronoun.
    - He is one of the singers who dance. (The antecedent of *who* is *singers*, plural: singers dance.)

**USING PRONOUNS CORRECTLY**

1. Use the **nominative case** when the pronoun is a subject or a predicate nominative.
   - She *eats* cake.
   - Is he *here*?
   - That is I. (predicate nominative)
2. Use the **objective case** when the pronoun is an object.  
   Clarence invited **us**. (direct object)  
   Chapa gave **me** a gift. (indirect object)  
   Spot! Don’t run around **me!** (object of preposition)

3. Use the **possessive case** to replace possessive nouns and precede gerunds. Never use an apostrophe in a possessive pronoun.  
   That new car is **hers**.  
   They were thrilled at **his** playing the violin.

4. Use the **nominative case** when the pronoun is a subject or a predicate nominative.  
   **We** three—Marijan, his sister, and I—went to camp.

5. Use the **objective case** to rename an object.  
   The teacher acknowledged **us**, Burny and **me**.

6. When a pronoun is followed by an appositive, choose the case of the pronoun that would be correct if the appositive were omitted.  
   **We** the jury find the defendant guilty.  
   That building was erected by **us workers**.

7. In elliptical adverb clauses using than and as, choose the case of the pronoun that you would use if the missing words were fully expressed.  
   Kareem is a better sprinter than **I**. (I am)  
   It helped you more than **me**. (it helped me)

8. Use a **reflexive pronoun** when it refers to the person who is the subject of the sentence. Avoid using hisself or theirselves.  
   Jerry found **himself** in a mess.  
   The candidates questioned **themselves** about their tactics.

9. In questions, use who for subjects and whom for objects. Use who and whoever for subjects and predicate nominatives in subordinate clauses. Use the objective pronouns whom and whomever for objects of subordinate clauses.  
   **Who** roasted these marshmallows?  
   **Whom** will you hire next?  
   This medal is for **whoever** finishes first.  
   The newspaper will interview **whomever** the editor chooses.

10. An **antecedent** is the word or group of words to which a pronoun refers or that a pronoun replaces. All pronouns must agree with their antecedents in number, gender, and person.  
    Colleen’s **friends** gave up their free time to help.  
    The **Senate** passed its first bill of the year.

11. Make sure that the antecedent of a pronoun is clearly stated.  
    **VAGUE:** The people who lost their dogs stayed in their yards, hoping **they** would return.  
    **CLEAR:** The people who lost their dogs stayed in their yards, hoping the **dogs** would return.  
    **INDEFINITE:** If you park the car under the sign it will be towed away.  
    **CLEAR:** If you park the car under the sign the **car** will be towed away.

### USING MODIFIERS CORRECTLY

1. Most adjectives and adverbs have three **degrees of form**. The **positive form** of a modifier cannot be used to make a comparison. The **comparative form** of a modifier shows two things being compared. The **superlative form** of a modifier shows three or more things being compared.  
   The year went by **fast**.  
   This year went by **faster** than last year.  
   I expect next year to go by the **fastest** of all.
2. One- and two-syllable adjectives add -er to form comparative and -est to form superlative.
   **POSITIVE:**  bold  happy  strong
   **COMPARATIVE:**  bolder  happier  stronger
   **SUPERLATIVE:**  boldest  happiest  strongest

3. For adverbs ending in -ly and modifiers with three or more syllables, use more and most or less and least to form the comparative and superlative degrees.
   He was the **least** exhausted of the group.  She spoke **more** caringly than some others.

4. Some modifiers have irregular forms.
   **POSITIVE:**  good, well  badly, ill  far  many, much  little
   **COMPARATIVE:**  better  worse  farther  more  less
   **SUPERLATIVE:**  best  worst  farthest  most  least

5. Do not make a double comparison using both -er or -est and more or most.
   **INCORRECT:**  That musical was the **most funniest** I have ever seen.
   **CORRECT:**  That musical was the **funniest** I have ever seen.

6. Do not make an incomplete or unclear comparison by omitting other or else when you compare one member of a group with another.
   **UNCLEAR:**  Joey has missed more school than any kid in the ninth grade.
   **CLEAR:**  Joey has missed more school than any **other** kid in the ninth grade.

7. Avoid double negatives, which are two negative words in the same clause.
   **INCORRECT:**  I have **not** seen **no** stray cats.
   **CORRECT:**  I have **not** seen **any** stray cats.

8. For clarity, place modifiers as close as possible to the words they modify.
   **MISPLACED:**  The fire was snuffed out by the storm **that we accidentally started.**
   **CLEAR:**  The fire **that we accidentally started** was snuffed out by the storm.
   **DANGLING:**  To avoid the long walk, **a friend drove us.**
   **CLEAR:**  To avoid the long walk, **we were driven by a friend.**

9. Place the adverb only immediately before the word or group of words it modifies.
   **Only** Afi wants choir rehearsal next week. (No one but Afi wants rehearsal.)
   Afi wants **only** choir rehearsal next week. (She wants no other rehearsal.)
   Afi wants choir rehearsal **only** next week. (She does not want rehearsal any other week.)

**USAGE GLOSSARY**

a, an  Use the article a when the following word begins with a consonant sound. Use an when the following word begins with a vowel sound.
   a house  an understudy  an hour  a united front

a lot, alot  Always write this expression, meaning “a large amount,” as two words.
   With his help, we will learn **a lot** about photography.

a while, awhile  In or for often precedes a while, forming a prepositional phrase. Awhile is used only as an adverb.
   Let us listen to the forest for **a while.**  The students listened **awhile.**
accept, except  Accept, a verb, means “to receive” or “to agree to.” Except may be a preposition or a verb. As a preposition it means “but.” As a verb it means “to leave out.”
I will accept all of your terms except the last one.

adapt, adopt  Adapt means “to adjust.” Adopt means “to take something for one’s own.”
Species survive because they adapt to new situations. My church will adopt a needy family.

advice, advise  Advice, a noun, means “helpful opinion.” Advise, a verb, means “to give advice.”
I must advise you to never take Jakel’s advice.

affect, effect  Affect, a verb, means “to cause a change in, to influence.” Effect may be a noun or a verb. As a noun it means “result.” As a verb it means “to bring about.”
Is it true that the observer can affect the results? (verb)
I have no idea what effect that may have. (noun)
How can the president effect a good approval rating? (verb)

ain’t  Ain’t is unacceptable in speaking and writing. Use only in exact quotations.

all ready, already  All ready means “completely ready.” Already means “before or by this time.”
We had already purchased our plane tickets, and we were all ready to board.

all right, alright  Always write this expression as two words. Alright is unacceptable.
Because she is your friend, she is all right with me.

all together, altogether  The two words all together mean “in a group.” The single word altogether is an adverb meaning “completely” or “on the whole.”
The hikers gathered all together for lunch, and they were altogether exhausted.

allusion, illusion  Allusion means “an indirect reference.” Illusion refers to something false.
Mr. Lee made an allusion to The Grapes of Wrath. The magician performed illusions.

anyways, anywheres, everywheres, somewheres  Write these words and others like them without a final -s: anyway, anywhere, everywhere, somewhere.

bad, badly  Use bad as an adjective and badly as an adverb.
We watched a bad movie. He sang the national anthem quite badly.

being as, being that  Use these only informally. In formal writing and speech, use because or since.

beside, besides  Beside means “next to.” Besides means “moreover” or “in addition to.”
Who, besides Antonio, will offer to sit beside the window?

between, among  Use between to refer to or to compare two separate nouns. Use among to show a relationship in a group.
I could not choose between Harvard and Princeton. Who among the class knows me?

borrow, lend, loan  Borrow is a verb meaning “to take something that must be returned.” Lend is a verb meaning “to give something that must be returned.” Loan is a noun.
People borrow money from banks. Banks will lend money to approved customers.
People always must apply for a loan.

bring, take  Use bring to show movement from a distant place to a closer one. Use take to show movement from a nearby place to a more distant one.
Bring in the paper, and take out the trash.

can, may  Can indicates the ability to do something. May indicates permission to do something.
Anyone can use a credit card, but only the cardholder may authorize it.

can’t hardly, can’t scarcely  These terms are considered double negatives. Do not use them. Use can hardly and can scarcely.
**continual, continuous** Continual describes repetitive action with pauses between occurrences. Continuous describes an action that continues with no interruption in space or time. We make continual trips to the grocery. Continuous energy from our sun lights the sky.

could of, might of, must of, should of, would of Do not use of after could, might, must, should, or would. Instead, use the helping verb have. That must have been the longest play ever!

different from, different than The expression different from is preferred to different than. Baseball is different from the English sport of cricket.

doesn’t, don’t Doesn’t is the contraction of does not and should be used with all singular nouns. Don’t is the contraction of do not and should be used with I, you, and all plural nouns. My dog doesn’t like the mail carrier. Bobsled riders don’t take their job lightly.

emigrate, immigrate Use emigrate to mean “to move from one country to another.” Use immigrate to mean “to enter a country to settle there.” Use from with emigrate and to with immigrate. Refugees emigrate from war-torn countries. My great-grandfather immigrated to America.

farther, further Farther refers to physical distance. Further refers to time or degree. Traveling farther from your home may further your understanding of different places.

fewer, less Use fewer to refer to nouns that can be counted. Use less to refer to nouns that cannot be counted. Also use less to refer to figures used as a single amount or quantity. If fewer crimes were committed, there would be less misery in the world. The box measured less than 100 cm$^2$.

good, well Good is an adjective, and well is an adverb. That spot is a good place for a picnic. We dined well that day.

had of Do not use of between had and a past participle. I wish I had eaten my sundae when I had the chance.

hanged, hung Use hanged to mean “put to death by hanging.” Use hung in all other cases. In the Old West, many were convicted and hanged. I hung my coat on the hook.

in, into, in to Use in to mean “inside” or “within” and into to indicate movement or direction from outside to a point within. In to is made up of an adverb (in) followed by a preposition (to). The fish swim in the sea. We moved into a new house last year. The student walked in to see the principal for a meeting.

irregardless, regardless Always use regardless. Irregardless is a double negative. Root beer tastes great regardless of the brand.

this kind, these kinds Because kind is singular, it is modified by the singular form this or that. Because kinds is plural, it is modified by the plural form these or those. I love these kinds of desserts! I do not feel comfortable with this kind of situation.

lay, lie Lay means “to put” or “to place,” and it takes a direct object. Lie means “to recline” or “to be positioned,” and it never takes an object. I taught my dog to lay the paper at my feet and then lie on the ground.

learn, teach Learn means “to receive knowledge.” Teach means “to impart knowledge.” I want to learn a new language and later teach it to others.

leave, let Leave means “to go away.” Let means “to allow” or “to permit.” My guest had to leave because his parents do not let him stay up too late.

like, as Like is a preposition and introduces a prepositional phrase. As and as if are subordinating
conjunctions and introduce subordinate clauses. Never use like before a clause. I felt like a stuffed crab after the feast. The pigeons flew away, as they always do when scared.

**loose, lose** Use loose to mean “not firmly attached” and lose to mean “to misplace” or “to fail to win.”
You don’t want to lose your nice pair of loose jeans.

**passed, past** Passed is the past tense and the past participle of the verb to pass. Past can be an adjective, a preposition, an adverb, or a noun.
He passed the exit ramp because he could not see the sign past the bushes.

**precede, proceed** Precede means “to go or come before.” Proceed means “to continue.”
We can proceed with the plans. From a distance, lightning appears to precede thunder.

**raise, rise** Raise means “to cause to move upward,” and it always takes an object. Rise means “to get up”; it is intransitive and never takes an object.
Raise the drawbridge! For some, it is difficult to rise in the morning.

**reason is because** Use either reason is that or because.
The reason he left is that he was bored. He left because he was bored.

**respectfully, respectively** Respectfully means “with respect.” Respectively means “in the order named.”
We respectfully bowed to the audience.
Abla, Héctor, and Shelly, respectively, play first, second, and third base.

**says, said** Says is the third-person singular of say. Said is the past tense of say.
Listen carefully to what she says. I love what the keynote speaker said.

**sit, set** Sit means “to place oneself in a sitting position.” It rarely takes an object. Set means “to place” or “to put” and usually takes an object. Set can also refer to the sun’s going down.
Sit anywhere you would like. Set the nozzle back in its slot before paying for the gas. Today the sun will set at seven o’clock.

**than, then** Than is a conjunction that is used to introduce the second element in a comparison; it also shows exception. Then is an adverb.
Julio hit more home runs than Jacob this year. Call for help first, and then start CPR.

**this here, that there** Avoid using here and there after this and that.
This bunk is yours.

**who, whom** Who is a subject, and whom is an object.
Who first sang the song “Memories”? To whom should I throw the ball now?

### CAPITALIZATION

1. Capitalize the first word in a sentence, including direct quotes and sentences in parentheses unless they are contained within another sentence.
   Shakespeare asked, “What’s in a name?” (This is from Romeo and Juliet.)

2. Always capitalize the pronoun I no matter where it appears in a sentence.
   Because I woke up late, I had to race to school.

3. Capitalize the following proper nouns.
   a. Names of individuals, titles used in direct address or preceding a name, and titles describing a family relationship used with a name or in place of a name
   President Nixon George Burns Sis Sir Anthony Hopkins Uncle Jay
b. Names of ethnic groups, national groups, political parties and their members, and languages
   
   African Americans  Mexicans  Republican party  Hebrew

c. Names of organizations, institutions, firms, monuments, bridges, buildings, and other structures
   
   National Honor Society  Vietnam War Memorial  Brooklyn Bridge  Parliament

d. Trade names and names of documents, awards, and laws
   
   Kleenex tissues  Declaration of Independence  Academy Award  Bill of Rights

e. Geographical terms and regions or localities
   
   North Carolina  Arctic Ocean  Nile River  West Street  the South  Central Park

f. Names of planets and other heavenly bodies
   
   Jupiter  Horsehead Nebula  the Milky Way

g. Names of ships, planes, trains, and spacecraft
   
   Challenger  Spirit of St. Louis  USS George Washington

h. Names of most historical events, eras, calendar items, and religious terms
   
   Fourth of July  Jurassic  Gulf War  Friday  Yom Kippur  Protestant

i. Titles of literary works, works of art, and musical compositions
   

4. Capitalize proper adjectives (adjectives formed from proper nouns).
   
   Socratic method  Jungian theory  Chinese food  Georgia clay  Colombian coffee

**PUNCTUATION, ABBREVIATIONS, AND NUMBERS**

1. Use a period at the end of a declarative sentence and at the end of a polite command.
   
   Robin Hood was a medieval hero.  Pass the papers to the front.

2. Use an exclamation point to show strong feeling or to give a forceful command.
   
   What a surprise that is!  Watch out!  That’s just what I need!

3. Use a question mark to indicate a direct question. Use a period to indicate an indirect question.
   
   DIRECT:  Who ruled France in 1821?
   
   INDIRECT:  Gamal wanted to know how much time was left before lunch.

4. Use a colon to introduce a list or to illustrate or restate previous material.
   
   For my team, I choose the following people:  Zina, Ming, and Sue.
   
   In light of the data, the conclusion was not hard to obtain:  Earth is not flat.

5. Use a colon for precise time measurements, biblical chapter and verse references, and business letter salutations.
   
   10:02 A.M.  John 3:16  Dear Ms. Delgado:

6. Use a semicolon in the following situations:
   
   a. To separate main clauses not joined by a coordinating conjunction
      
      My computer isn’t working; perhaps I need to call a technician.
   
   b. To separate main clauses joined by a conjunctive adverb or by for example or that is
      
      Cancer is a serious disease; however, heart disease kills more people.
   
   c. To separate items in a series when those items contain commas
      
      I have done oral reports on Maya Angelou, a poet; Billy Joel, a singer; and Mario van Peebles, a director and actor.
d. To separate two main clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction when such clauses already contain several commas
   According to Bruce, he spent his vacation in Naples, Florida; but he said it was a business, not a pleasure, trip.

7. Use a comma in the following situations:
   a. To separate the main clauses of compound sentences
      She was a slow eater, but she always finished her meal first.
   b. To separate three or more words, phrases, or clauses in a series
      Apples, oranges, grapefruit, and cherries are delicious.
   c. To separate coordinate modifiers
      The prom was a happy, exciting occasion.
   d. To set off parenthetical expressions
      He will, of course, stay for dinner. Mary, on the other hand, is very pleasant.
   e. To set off nonessential clauses and phrases; to set off introductory adverbial clauses, participial phrases, and long prepositional phrases
      Adjective clause: The bride, who is a chemist, looked lovely.
      Appositive phrase: The parade, the longest I’ve ever seen, featured twelve bands.
      Adverbial clause: After we had eaten, I realized my wallet was still in the car.
      Participial phrase: Laughing heartily, Milan quickly left the room.
      Prepositional phrase: At the sound of the final buzzer, the ball slid through the hoop.
   f. To separate parts of an address, a geographical term, or a date
      1640 Chartwell Avenue, Edina, Minnesota September 11, 1982
   g. To set off parts of a reference
      Read Slaughterhouse-Five, pages 15–20. Perform a scene from Hamlet, Act II.
   h. To set off words or phrases of direct address and tag questions
      Sherri, please pass the butter. How are you, my friend? We try hard, don’t we?
   i. After the salutation and close of a friendly letter and after the close of a business letter
      Dear Richard, Sincerely, Yours, Dear Mother,

8. Use dashes to signal a change in thought or to emphasize parenthetical matter.
   “Remember to turn off the alarm—oh, don’t touch that!”

9. Use parentheses to set off supplemental material. Punctuate within the parentheses only if the punctuation is part of the parenthetical expression.
   I saw Bill Cosby (he is my favorite comedian) last night.

10. Use brackets to enclose information inserted by someone besides the original writer.
    The paper continues, “The company knows he [Watson] is impressed.”

11. Ellipsis points, a series of three spaced points, indicate an omission of material.
    The film critic said, “The show was great . . . a must see!”

12. Use quotation marks to enclose a direct quotation. When a quotation is interrupted, use two sets of quotation marks. Use single quotation marks for a quotation within a quotation.
    “This day,” the general said, “will live on in infamy.”

13. Use quotation marks to indicate titles of short works, unusual expressions, and definitions.
    “The Gift of the Magi” (short story) “Ave Maria” (song)
    Large speakers are called “woofers,” and small speakers are called “tweeters.”
14. Always place commas and periods inside closing quotations marks. Place colons and semicolons outside closing quotation marks. Place question marks and exclamation points inside closing quotation marks only when those marks are part of the quotation.

“Rafi told me,” John said, “that he could not go.”

Let me tell you about “Piano Man”: it is a narrative song.

He yelled, “Who are you?”

Did she say “Wait for me”?

15. Italicize (underline) titles of books, lengthy poems, plays, films, television series, paintings and sculptures, long musical compositions, court cases, names of newspapers and magazines, ships, trains, airplanes, and spacecraft.

- *The Last Supper* (painting)
- *Bang the Drum Slowly* (film)
- *Roe v. Wade* (court case)
- *Titanic* (ship)
- *Time* (magazine)
- *Boston Globe* (newspaper)

16. Italicize (underline) foreign words and expressions that are not used frequently in English and words, letters, and numerals used to represent themselves.

Please discuss the phrase *caveat emptor*.

Today, *Sesame Street* was sponsored by the letters *t* and *m* and the number *6*.

17. Add an apostrophe and -s to all singular indefinite pronouns, singular nouns, plural nouns not ending in -s, and compound nouns to make them possessive. Add only an apostrophe to plural nouns ending in -s to make them possessive.

- anyone’s guess
- the dog’s leash
- the women’s club
- students’ teacher
- singers’ microphones
- runners’ shoes

18. If two or more people possess something jointly, use the possessive form for the last person’s name. If they possess things individually, use the possessive form for both names.

- mom and dad’s checkbook
- Carmen’s and Sumil’s projects

19. Use a possessive form to express amounts of money or time that modify a noun.

- a day’s pay
- fifty dollars’ worth
- a block’s walk

20. Use an apostrophe in place of omitted letters or numerals. Use an apostrophe and -s to form the plural of letters, numerals, and symbols.

- *cannot* is *can’t*
- *do not* is *don’t*
- 1978 is ’78

Mind your *p’s* and *q’s*.

21. Use a hyphen after any prefix joined to a proper noun or a proper adjective. Use a hyphen after the prefixes all-, ex-, and self- joined to a noun or an adjective, the prefix anti- joined to a word beginning with i-, the prefix vice- (except in vice president), and the prefix re- to avoid confusion between words that are spelled the same but have different meanings.

- all-inclusive
- ex-wife
- self-reliance
- anti-immigrant
- vice-principal
- re-call instead of recall

22. Use a hyphen in a compound adjective that precedes a noun. Use a hyphen in compound numbers and in fractions used as adjectives.

- a green-yellow jersey
- a red-hot poker
- jet-black hair
- ninety-nine
- one-fifth cup of sugar

23. Use a hyphen to divide words at the end of a line.

- daz-zle
- terri-tory
- Mediter-ranean

24. Use one period at the end of an abbreviation. If punctuation other than a period ends the sentence, use both the period and the other punctuation.

Bring me the books, papers, pencils, etc. Could you be ready at 2:00 P.M.?
25. Capitalize the abbreviations of proper nouns and some personal titles.  

26. Abbreviate numerical measurements in scientific writing but not in ordinary prose.  
Measure 89 g into the crucible.  Jim ran ten yards when he heard that dog barking!

27. Spell out cardinal and ordinal numbers that can be written in one or two words and those that appear at the beginning of a sentence.  
Five hundred people attended.  I look forward to my eighteenth birthday.

28. Use numerals for date; for decimals; for house, apartment, and room numbers; for street and avenue numbers greater than ten; for sums of money involving both dollars and cents; and to emphasize the exact time of day and with A.M. and P.M.  
Aptil 1, 1996  Room 251  $2.51  2:51 P.M.

29. Express all related numbers in a sentence as numerals if any one should be a numeral.  
The subscriptions gradually rose from 10 to 116.

30. Spell out numbers that express decades, amounts of money that can be written in one or two words, streets and avenues less than ten, and the approximate time of day.  
the seventies  fifty cents  Fifth Avenue  half past five

VOCABULARY AND SPELLING

1. Clues to the meaning of an unfamiliar word can be found in its context. Context clues include definition, the meaning stated; example, the meaning explained through one familiar case; comparison, similarity to a familiar word; contrast, opposite of a familiar word; and cause and effect, a cause described by its effects.

2. Clues to the meaning of a word can be obtained from its base word, its prefix, or its suffix.  
telegram  gram = writing  psychology  psych = soul, mind  
antibacterial  anti = against  biology  -logy = study

3. The i comes before the e, except when both letters follow a c or when both letters are pronounced together as an ā sound. However, many exceptions exist to this rule.  
field (i before e)  deceive (ei after c)  reign (ā sound)  weird (exception)

4. Most word endings pronounced -sed are spelled -cede. In one word, supersede, the ending is spelled -sede. In, proceed, exceed, and succeed, the ending is spelled -ceed.  
precede  recede  concede

5. An unstressed vowel sound is not emphasized when a word is pronounced. Determine the spelling of this sound by comparing it to a known word.  
hesitant (Compare to hesitate.)  fantasy (Compare to fantastic.)

6. When adding a suffix that begins with a consonant to a word that ends in silent e, generally keep the e. If the suffix begins with a vowel or y, generally drop the e. If the suffix begins with a or o and the word ends in ce or ge, keep the e. If the suffix begins with a vowel and the word ends in ee, or oe, keep the e.  
encouragement  scary  changeable  fleeing

7. When adding a suffix to a word ending in a consonant -y, change the y to i unless the suffix begins with i. If the word ends in a vowel -y, keep the y.  
heartiness  readiness  spying  straying
8. Double the final consonant before adding a suffix that begins with a vowel to a word that ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel if the accent is on the root’s last syllable.
   planned finned misfitted

9. When adding -ly to a word that ends in a single l, keep the l. If it ends in a double l, drop one l. If it ends in a consonant +le, drop the le.
   real becomes really dull becomes dully inexplicable becomes inexplicably

10. When adding -ness to a word that ends in n, keep the n.
    leanness meanness greenness

11. When joining a word or prefix that ends in a consonant to a suffix or word that begins with a consonant, keep both consonants.
    quietness greatly redness

12. Most nouns form their plurals by adding -s. However, nouns that end in -ch, -s, -sh, -x, or -z form plurals by adding -es. If the noun ends in a consonant +y, change y to i and add -es. If the noun ends in -if, change f to v and add -es. If the noun ends in -fe, change f to v and add -s.
    cans churches faxes spies halves loaves

13. To form the plural of proper names and one-word compound nouns, follow the general rules for plurals. To form the plural of hyphenated compound nouns or compound nouns of more than one word, make the most important word plural.
    Shatners Stockholders brothers-in-law Master Sergeants

14. Some nouns have the same singular and plural forms.
    sheep species

**COMPOSITION**

**Writing Themes and Paragraphs**

1. Use prewriting to find ideas to write about. One form of prewriting, freewriting, starts with a subject or topic and branches off into related ideas. Another way to find a topic is to ask and answer questions about your starting subject, helping you to gain a deeper understanding of your chosen topic. Also part of the prewriting stage is determining who your readers or audience will be and deciding your purpose for writing. Your purpose—as varied as writing to persuade, to explain, to describe something, or to narrate—is partially shaped by who your audience will be, and vice versa.

2. To complete your first draft, organize your prewriting into an introduction, body, and conclusion. Concentrate on unity and coherence of the overall piece. Experiment with different paragraph orders: chronological order places events in the order in which they happened; spatial order places objects in the order in which they appear; and compare/contrast order shows similarities and differences in objects or events.

3. Revise your composition if necessary. Read through your draft, looking for places to improve content and structure. Remember that varying your sentence patterns and lengths will make your writing easier and more enjoyable to read.

4. In the editing stage, check your grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Focus on expressing your ideas clearly and concisely.

5. Finally, prepare your writing for presentation. Sharing your composition, or ideas, with others may take many forms: printed, oral, or graphic.
Outlining

1. The two common forms of outlines are sentence outlines and topic outlines. Choose one type of outline and keep it uniform throughout.

2. A period follows the number or letter of each division. Each point in a sentence outline ends with a period; the points in a topic outline do not.

3. Each point begins with a capital letter.

4. A point may have no fewer than two subpoints.

   SENTENCE OUTLINE
   I. This is the main point.
      A. This is a subpoint of I.
         1. This is a detail of A.
            a. This is a detail of 1.
            b. This is a detail of 1.
         2. This is a detail of A.
      B. This is a subpoint of I.
   II. This is another main point.

   TOPIC OUTLINE
   I. Main point
      A. Subpoint of I
         1. Detail of A
         2. Detail of A
      B. Subpoint of I
   II. Main point

Writing letters

1. Personal letters are usually handwritten in indented form (the first line of paragraphs, each line of the heading, the complimentary close, and the signature are indented). Business letters are usually typewritten in block or semiblock form. Block form contains no indents; semiblock form indents the heading, the complimentary close, and the signature.

2. The five parts of a personal letter are the heading (the writer’s address and the date), the salutation (greeting), the body (message), the complimentary close (such as “Yours truly”), and the signature (the writer’s name). The business letter has the same parts and also includes an inside address (the recipient’s address).

   PERSONAL LETTER
   
   Heading
   Salutation
   Body
   Complimentary Close
   Signature

   BUSINESS LETTER
   
   Heading
   Inside Address
   Salutation
   Body
   Complimentary Close
   Signature
3. Reveal your personality and imagination in colorful personal letters. Keep business letters brief, clear, and courteous.

4. **Personal letters** include letters to friends and family members. **Thank-you notes** and **invitations** are personal letters that may be either formal or informal in style.

5. Use a **letter of complaint** to convey a concern. Begin the letter by telling what happened. Then use supporting details as evidence. Complete the letter by explaining what you want done. Avoid insults and threats, and make reasonable requests. Use a **letter of request** to ask for information or to place an order of purchase. Be concise, yet give all the details necessary for your request to be fulfilled. Keep the tone of your letter courteous and be generous in allotting time for a response.

6. Use an **opinion letter** to take a firm stand on an issue. Make the letter clear, firm, rational, and purposeful. Be aware of your audience, their attitude, how informed they are, and their possible reactions to your opinion. Support your statements of opinion with facts.

7. Use a **résumé** to summarize your work experience, school experience, talents, and interests. Be clear, concise, and expressive. Use a consistent form. You do not need to write in complete sentences, but use as many action verbs as possible.

8. Use a **cover letter** as a brief introduction accompanying your **résumé**.