

# ROYAL ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

## GRAMMAR REVIEW I

### PARTS OF SPEECH

There are eight parts of speech in English.

A part of speech is a category into which one places a word depending on how it functions in a sentence.

The same word may be different parts of speech, depending on the word's use in the sentence.

**Examples:** I have a part in the play. (“part” is a noun.)  
I part my hair on the left. (“part” is a verb.)  
My dog is part collie. (“part” is an adjective.)

My love gave me a ring. (“ring” is a noun.)  
I will ring the doorbell. (“ring” is a verb.)  
Have you a ring holder? (“ring” is an adjective.)

This is the fast lane. (“fast” is an adjective.)  
The man runs very fast. (“fast” is an adverb.)

Only a close examination of what a word is doing in a sentence reveals its part of speech.

Parts of speech:

Names:	Noun Pronoun
Modifiers:	Adjective Adverb
Action/State of Being:	Verb
Mortar of a Sentence:	Prepositions Conjunctions
Exclamation:	Interjection

## GRAMMAR REVIEW II

### THE NOUN

The noun (Latin nomen = name) is the name of:

A person (Rumplestilskin; Claudette Colbert; Fetty Wap)

A place (New York City, Bear Mountain,

Lake Chargoggagoggmanchauggagoggchaubunagungamaugg)

A thing (twig, frog, walnut, sphygmomanometer)

A quality (beauty, happiness, courage)

An activity (swimming, praying, speaking) = GERUND

A concept (friendship, Communism, materialism, spirituality)

A condition (peace, security, joy)

#### Types of Nouns:

**Common:** the label for any member of a category

(man, novelist, country, soup, city, religion)

In English, one never capitalizes a common noun.

**Proper:** the label for a specific member of a category

(Cary Grant, Ernest Hemingway, Mongolia, Campbell's Soup, Horseheads, Roman Catholicism)

**Abstract:** the name of a non-tangible thing, an idea

(violence, empathy, catastrophe)

**Concrete:** the name of something one can sense

(prune, aroma, fire, violin)

**General:** the broad term naming all members of a group (like a common noun) (weapon, dwelling, fruit, furniture)

**Specific:** the name of a particular member of a group

(sword, apartment, grape, sofa)

**Collective:** the name of a group, written as a common noun and in the singular (committee, jury, army, club, team, class, murder of crows, pride of lions, exaltation of larks, pod of whales)

Collective nouns may be consistently singular (referring to a unit) or consistently plural (referring to individuals).

#### Gender of Nouns:

Since the Middle Ages (since about 1300), English nouns have natural gender, reflecting the sex of the individual:

Males have masculine gender: actor, man, boy, aviator, bull, rooster.

Females have feminine gender: actress, woman, girl, aviatrix, cow, hen

Sexless objects have neuter gender: tree, box, book, floor, chair

Terms applying to males and females have common gender: worker, friend, worker, student, assistant)

**Note:** So-called "sexist" nouns containing the word "man: (chairman, fireman, mailman) traditionally apply to either sex and are common nouns, as is the word "man: when referring to the human race.

## GRAMMAR REVIEW III

### Number of Nouns:

Nouns may be singular (referring to one) or plural (referring to more than one)

Most nouns form their plural by adding “s” to the singular:

(hat = hats; duck = ducks; name = names)

Nouns ending in a sibilant (s,z,sh,ch,x) form their plural by adding “es” to the singular (class = classes; bushes = bushes; church = churches; ax = axes) N

Nouns ending in a consonant + y change the y to i form their plural by adding “es” to the singular (spy = spies; country = countries)

- Some nouns form their plurals irregularly:

man	=	men
woman	=	women
goose	=	geese
ox	=	oxen
child	=	children
foot	=	feet
tooth	=	teeth

- English is an eclectic language, taking words and even their plurals from other languages: [Note: Use a good dictionary for unfamiliar nouns.]

Latin	datum	=	data
	bacterium	=	bacteria
	medium	=	media
	alumnus	=	alumni
	alumna	=	alumnae
	stratus	=	strata
Greek:	criterion	=	criteria
	phenomenon	=	phenomena
	crisis	=	crises
	psychosis	=	psychoses
French:	chateau	=	chateaux
	beau	=	beaux
	tableau	=	tableaux
Italian:	graffito	=	graffiti
	soprano	=	soprani
	concerto	=	concerti
Hebrew:	cherub	=	cherubim
	seraph	=	seraphim

## GRAMMAR REVIEW IV

- Collective nouns may be singular or plural, but once one settles on a number, he must be consistent in using that number:

Correct: The committee is finished with its work. It adjourned.

The committee are finished with their work. They adjourned.

Incorrect: The committee is finished with their work. They adjourned.

**Case of Nouns:** Nouns and pronouns have case.

Case is a category into which one puts a noun based on its function in the sentence.

Modern English has three cases:

**Nominative (Subjective) Case:**

Used for the subject of a verb (The lamp burned out.)

Used for direct address (John, come here.)

Used for an appositive of a subject (My friend, Bill, died.)

Used for predicate nominative, the complement of a copulative verb (The last caller was Mary.)

**Objective Case:**

Used for the direct object of a verb: (I need a new lamp.)

Used for the indirect object of a verb: (Give them the money.)

Used for the object of a preposition: (Give the money to them.)

Used for the subject of an infinitive: (I need her to help the girls.)

Used for an objective complement: (They elected him chairman.)

Note: The nominative and objective cases use the noun's same form.

**Possessive (Genitive) Case:**

Used to show ownership. In the noun, the possessive case is the only case with a distinct ending added to the noun.

-usually, add 's to a singular noun to form the possessive case:

Bill = Bill's

poet = poet's

goddess = goddess's

-if the singular noun ends in "s," one may form the possessive either with 's or just the apostrophe:

Mr. Marks = Mr. Marks's or Mr. Marks'

Anaxagoras = Anaxagoras's or Anaxagoras'

Santa Claus = Santa Claus's or Santa Claus'

-for plural nouns ending in "s," add just the apostrophe for the possessive case;

boys = boys'

classes = classes'

-for plural nouns ending in a consonant other than "s," add 's to form the possessive case: men = men's

# GRAMMAR REVIEW V

## THE PRONOUN

The pronoun (L. pro nomine = for the noun) is a word substituting for a noun or another pronoun.

The noun for which the pronoun is a substitute is called the ANTECEDENT (ante + cedo = to go before) of the pronoun, and the antecedent must always be a single word, either stated or implied. Sometimes, the antecedent can follow the pronoun.

Mark said that Mark would be late.

Mark said that he would be late. (The pronoun “he” substitutes for the noun “Mark.” “Mark” is the antecedent of “he.”)

After he built the fire, Chuck died. (The pronoun “he” comes before its antecedent, “Mark.”)

**Number:** Like nouns, pronouns can be singular (I, one, he, she, it) or plural (we, they).

**Gender:** Like nouns, pronouns have natural gender, meaning that the pronouns and nouns have a gender based on the sex of the person or thing to which they refer:

Masculine pronouns denote males (he, him, his);

Feminine pronouns denote females (she, her, hers);

Neuter pronouns denote inanimate or non-human things (it, its);

Common gender pronouns refer to males, females, and inanimate objects (they, them, one).

**Person:** The concept of person in verbs and pronouns refers to which role the verb or pronoun identifies in the act of communication.

**FIRST PERSON** (I, me, my, we, us, our, ours) denotes the speaker when referring to himself.

**SECOND PERSON** (you, your, yours, thou, thee, thy, thine, ye) denotes The person being spoken to.

**THIRD PERSON** (he, him, his, she, her, hers, one, it, its, they, their, theirs, them) denotes the person(s) or thing(s) being spoken about.

### **Types of Pronouns:**

**Personal:** refer to the three persons involved in communication (See concept of Person above) (I, you, he, she, it, etc.)

**Impersonal:** refer to non-humans ( it, they)

**Relative:** refer to a person or thing, begin a dependent clause, and relate that person or thing in the dependent clause to a noun or pronoun in the rest of the sentence (who, whom, whose, which, what that) (Example: My doctor whom I trust fell out of bed and died.)

## GRAMMAR REVIEW VI

- Demonstrative:** point to something (this, these; that, those)  
**Interrogative:** ask questions (who? which? what? whose? whom?)  
**Reflexive:** repeat or intensify the antecedent (I myself; he himself; she herself; you yourself; they themselves; we ourselves)  
**Reciprocal:** express mutual action or relationship (each other; one another)  
**Indefinite:** refer to no specific person or thing:  
**Singular:** another anyone, anybody, anything  
someone, somebody, something  
everyone, everybody, everything  
none, nobody, nothing  
each, either, neither  
**Plural:** several, some, many, few, all (at times)

**Case:** Like nouns, pronouns have case. But the personal pronouns and “who” have distinct case forms:

Nominative	Possessive	Objective
I	my, mine	me
you, ye	your, yours	you, ye
thou	thy, thine	thee
he	his	him
she	her, hers	her
it	its	it
we	our, ours	us
they	their, theirs	them
who	whose	whom

**Note:** Use the correct form for a specific use in the sentence:  
We (subject = nominative case) love summer.  
It is I (predicate nominative = nominative case).  
Toys are we (predicate nominative = nominative case).  
Just between you and me (object of a preposition = objective case), grammar is such fun!  
Is this yours (ownership = possessive case)?

**Note:** The possessive case of personal pronouns does not use the apostrophe.

### **Antecedent Agreement:**

- A pronoun and its antecedent must have the same number and gender.  
Replace a singular, masculine noun (boy) with a singular, masculine pronoun (he): The boy said he was sick.  
Replace a singular, feminine noun (daughter) with a singular, feminine pronoun (she): My daughter said she was prepared.

## GRAMMAR REVIEW VII

**Problems with Pronoun Agreement and Reference: finding the antecedent  
can be a problem because of:**

**a) Unclear, Distant, or Ambiguous Pronoun Reference:**

**John told Bill he was unprepared. (Who was unprepared?)**

**The coach, along with the team members, staff, and volunteers,  
brought his lunch. (The pronoun “his” refers to “coach.”)**

**b) A Collective Noun Antecedent:**

**The committee is preparing its work. (“Committee” is seen as a  
Single body; thus, the pronoun referring to “committee” is  
singular (“its”), as is the verb “is.”)**

**The committee are divided on their views. (“Committee” here is  
Seen as individuals; thus, the pronoun referring to  
“committee” and the verb “are” are plural.)**

**c) Several Possible Antecedents:**

**Neither Mary nor her sisters offered their help.**

**Neither her sisters nor Mary offered her help.**

**(Pronouns “either” and “neither” are singular; the antecedent  
is one or the other term, but not both. Thus, choose the closer  
antecedent to determine the number of the pronoun.)**

**d) Indefinite Singular Pronoun Antecedents:**

**Everybody had better shut his book, or he will be punished.**

**(The pronouns “everyone,” “everybody,” “anyone,” “anybody,”  
“none,” “nobody,” “someone,” and “somebody” are singular,  
though sometimes some seem plural; thus, they take a singular  
pronoun to replace them in a sentence.)**

**e) An Antecedent Comes After the Pronoun:**

**When they finished, Jack and his brother went home.**

**(The writer must be alert to the antecedents.)**

**f) Inconsistent Person:**

**In this class, a student must work hard or you will fail.**

**(Note the shift of person from third “student” to second “you.”**

**Be consistent in the person of the noun and pronoun:**

**In this class, a student must work hard or he will fail.)**

## GRAMMAR REVIEW VIII

### THE ADJECTIVE

The adjective (Latin adjectivum = added to) describes, modifies, alters, specifies our understanding of a noun or pronoun.

Brilliant birds flew by. (“Brilliant” describes and specifies the birds.)

The children are sad. (“Sad” describes the children.)

The hippopotami, which were bathing in the brook, drowned. (The clause describes the hippopotami and is an adjective clause.)

Potatoes from Long Island taste best. (The phrase describes the potatoes and is an adjective phrase.)

Running up the stairs, Veronica tripped, fell down, broke her toe, and died. (The phrase describes Veronica and is an adjective phrase.)

\*\*\*To identify the adjective, take a noun or pronoun and ask, “What kind?” and the answer, be it a word, phrase, or clause, is an adjective.

The woman with the purple snood won the prize.

(The underlined phrase describes the noun “woman” and answers the question, “What kind of woman?”)

Those by the window are the records which I need.

(The underlined phrases are adjective phrases. “By the window” answers the question, “What kind of those?” and “which I need” answers the question, “What kind of records?”)

\*\*\*\*The articles (a, an, the) are always adjectives.

In English, the normal position of the adjective is before the noun it modifies:

The broken window let in the cold air.

Occasionally, to draw attention to the adjective, it may be misplaced after the noun, since anything out of its ordinary place is noticed and stressed:

The window, broken, let in the cold air.

## GRAMMAR REVIEW IX

### Comparison of Adjectives

Adjectives (and adverbs) have three degrees

**-Positive** (an adjective describes one thing and offers no comparison):

sweet, fine, intelligent, beautiful)

**-Comparative** (an adjective compares two things only):

sweeter, finer, more intelligent, less beautiful

(Use “more” or “less” in the comparative degree if the adjective has more than two syllables; sometimes, either form is acceptable: costlier, more costly.)

**-Superlative** (an adjective compares more than two things):

sweetest, finest, most intelligent, least beautiful

(Use “most” or “least” in the superlative degree if the adjective has more than two syllables.)

**Irregular Comparatives:**    good, better, best  
   well, better, best  
   nigh, near, next  
   bad, worse, worst  
   little, less, least

**Absolute Adjectives:**    These adjectives never compare because they identify characteristics a person or thing either has or does not have; there are no degrees:

dead	alive
pregnant	full
empty	unique
complete	perfect
fatal	

**Avoid Double Comparatives or Double Superlatives:**

Never use more than one form of the comparative or superlative degree in a sentence:

Wrong:                    I am more happier than you.

Right:                    I am happier than you.

Wrong:                    This is the most sweetest fruit I ever tasted

Right:                    This is the sweetest fruit I ever tasted.

# GRAMMAR REVIEW X

## THE ADVERB

An adverb is a word, phrase, or clause describing a verb, adjective, or adverb.

**Modification of a Verb:** ask of the verb how, when, where, why, how much, to what extent, under what condition or circumstances?

Jim swam rapidly. (swam how?)

Jim swam yesterday. (swam when?)

Jim swam in the river. (swam where?)

Jim swam for exercise. (swam why?)

Jim swam briefly. (swam how much, to what extent?)

Jim swam despite the chilly weather. (swam under what condition?)

**Modification of an Adjective:** the adverb intensifies or specifies the adjective.

Waldo was positively certain that he fed the sapsuckers.  
(the adverb “positively” intensifies the adjective “certain.”)

Mildred’s eyes are intensely blue.  
(the adverb “intensely” intensifies the adjective “blue.”)

**Modification of an Adverb:** the adverb intensifies or specifies the other adverb.

Ophelia’s cake baked moderately slowly.  
(the adverb “moderately” specifies the adverb “slowly.”)  
How slowly? Moderately slowly.

Usually, adverbs end in –ly, but not always (He spoke fast.)

Usually, one can form an adverb by adding the suffix –ly to the adjective:

beautiful (adj.) = beautifully (adv.)

quick (adj.) = quickly (adv.)

willing (adj.) = willingly (adv.)

sad (adj.) = sadly

deserved (adj.) = deservedly (adv.)

**Note:** Surly grammarians insist that all words ending in –ly are adverbs. But “surly” is an adjective, as are “holy,” “silly,” and “wooly.”

**Comparison of Adverbs:**

Like adjectives, adverbs have degrees of comparison. Most adverbs are multi-syllabic and use “more” or “less” in the comparative degree and “most” or “least” in the superlative degree.

Positive: quickly, joyfully

Comparative: more quickly, less joyfully

Superlative: most quickly, least joyfully

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XI

### POSITIONING ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

In English, to avoid confusion and to maintain clarity, place the adjective and adverb word, phrase, or clause next to or near the word the adjective or adverb describes, modifies.

**Misplaced Modifiers** are adjectives or adverbs placed incorrectly in the sentence and thus describing the wrong word or idea:

**Wrong:** Lola almost fed all the dogs. (She almost fed them?)

**Right:** Lola fed almost all the dogs. (She fed five of six dogs.)

**Wrong:** The newspaper noted that the team won the game on the back page. (The team won on the back page?)

**Right:** On the back page, the newspaper noted that the team won the game. (The paper, on the back page, noted the win.)

**Squinting Modifiers** are adjectives or adverbs placed between two possible words, either of which the adjective or adverb could describe.

**Wrong:** Children who need extra help normally are given it. (Do they need help normally or are given it normally?)

**Right:** Children who need extra help are normally given it.  
Children who normally need extra help are given it.  
(Now, “normally” clearly modifies one concept.)

**Wrong:** The treasurer announced after the supper he would speak. (Did he announce after the supper or that he would speak after the supper?)

**Right:** After the supper, the treasurer announced that he would speak.  
The treasurer announced that he would speak after the supper.  
(Now, no confusion.)

**Dangling Modifiers** are adjectives or adverbs that modify nothing in the sentence.

**Wrong:** While dancing the hokey-pokey, the floor gave way. (Oh, really? The floor was dancing? Who was dancing?)

**Right:** As we danced the hokey-pokey, the floor gave way. (Now we know who danced.)

**Wrong:** Having cooked the kohlrabis, the supper was ready. (Who cooked kohlrabis? Not the supper.)

**Right:** Having cooked the kohlrabis, the hostess had the supper ready (The hostess cooked the kohlrabis.)

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XII

### THE INTERJECTION

The interjection (Latin inter = among, between and iacio = throw) is a word or phrase thrown into a sentence, like a rock in a pond, to express surprise, anger, glee, or other emotion, often strong. It is autonomous, bearing no grammatical relationship to other words in a sentence.

The interjection, if strong, is usually followed by an exclamation point and is not normally included in formal style..

A quiet or mild interjection in formal prose is followed by a comma.

Ouch! That slap hurt!

Wow! I thought that you died!

Holy pussycats! You look so good!

Indeed, the proposal was in good order.

Well, the situation never improved.

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XIII

### THE PREPOSITION

The preposition is a word “pre-posed” or places before a noun or pronoun to relate that noun or pronoun to another word in the sentence.

Many, but not all, prepositions show a relationship of space or time.

Give the crust to the birds. (“To” shows the relationship between “give” and “birds.”)

The girl in the autogyro is a student. (“In” shows the relationship between “girl” and “autogyro.”)

The warden fell off his velocipede and into the cement mixer and died.  
 (“Off” shows the relationship between “warden” and “velocipede”; “into” shows the relationship between “fell” and “mixer.”)

#### Common Prepositions:

in	of	between	beside	over
around	through	like	near	by
within	among	according to	above	off
with	without	after	against	past
before	beyond	behind	into	under
about	across	during	toward	at
up	down	instead of	upon	for
below	except	because of	since	on

#### Object of the Preposition:

The noun or pronoun that the preposition relates to another word in the sentence is called the object of the preposition and is in the objective case,

The pussycat on the sofa swallowed the goldfish.  
 (“sofa” is the object of the preposition “on.”)

Willy ate the garlic ice cream with a long spoon.  
 (“spoon” is the object of the preposition “with.”)

Hansel and Gretel took a crumb cake into the forest with them.  
 (“forest” is the object of the preposition “into,” and  
 “them” is the object of the preposition “with.”)

#### Prepositional Phrase:

The prepositional phrase = the preposition + its object + whatever modifies the object:

over the river  
through the woods  
to grandmother’s house  
without doubt

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XIV

### Uses of the Prepositional Phrase:

The prepositional phrase can act as an adjective, modifying a noun or pronoun:

The book on the shelf is old. (The prepositional phrase describes the noun “book.”)

Cats with short tails like sour cream. (The prepositional phrase describes “cats.”)

The prepositional phrase can act as an adverb, modifying a verb, an adjective, or another adverb:

The book fell off the shelf. (The prepositional phrase describes where the book fell.)

People who eat hot dogs with mayonnaise will eventually die.  
(The prepositional phrase describes how people eat hot dogs.)

Avoid ending a sentence with a preposition, if possible, since a preposition is a weak word whose function is to relate one word to another. Placing a preposition in the emphatic final position of a sentence wastes a dramatic opportunity to stress a key word or concept.

**Weak:** Do not betray the ideals these men died for. (Why stress “for”?)

**Strong:** Do not betray the ideals for which these men died. (“Died” is a powerful word and concept to stress.)

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XV

### THE CONJUNCTION

Conjunctions (Latin con + junc = join with) link words, or phrases, or clauses, or sentences.

There are two kinds of conjunctions:

**Coordinating Conjunctions:** connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences of EQUAL grammatical rank, of EQUAL importance.

There are only six: and, yet, but  
or, nor, for.  
("so" is sometimes listed.)

-They boiled kohlrabis and salsify.  
(“kohlrabis” and “salsify” are of equal grammatical importance; they are both direct objects of the verb “boiled.” Thus, “and” links equal parts of the sentence.)

-Sally bought a new hat, but she dropped it in the mud when she left the shop.  
“Sally bought a new hat” and “she dropped it in the mud when she left the shop” are independent clauses; they are equally important; the “but” therefore links equal ideas.)

**Subordinating Conjunctions:** connect clauses that are of UNEQUAL grammatical rank, of UNEQUAL importance. They make a clause subordinate, dependent, less grammatically significant.

Here are some: although, since, if, when,  
where, how, why, while, whereas, whether,  
until, because, after, before, as, unless,  
than

After we left, the party died. (“After” makes the clause “we left” less important than the clause, “the part died.”)

Molly smiled when her front tooth fell out.  
(The important idea here in “Molly smiled.” “When” makes the clause “her front tooth fell out” less important.)

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XVI

### THE VERB

The verb (Latin verbum = word) is the only essential word in the sentence.  
If your sentence lacks a verb, the sentence is not a sentence.  
The verb expresses action or state of being.

#### Types of Verbs:

a) Action Verbs: express a physical, mental, emotional, or spiritual action.

Peter bent the rod.

We hope for better weather.

We wish you a Merry Christmas!

The students reflected on the lecture.

Tomato paste ruins oatmeal sandwiches.

b) Copulative Verbs (Linking or State of Being Verbs) connect a subject to a noun or adjective or pronoun and show the state of the subject's existence:

Wanda was a flowerpot in the kindergarten play.

The guppy seemed angry.

Coca-Cola tastes better in six-ounce glass bottles.

Billy felt queasy after eating sixty-two hot dogs at Nathan's Contest.

Common Linking Verbs: be, seem, prove, appear, look, taste, sound, feel, become (when these verbs show no action)

He tasted the tripe. (Here, "tasted" is an action verb.)

The tripe tasted awful. (Here "tasted" is a copulative verb, expressing the state of the tripe.)

c) Modal auxiliary Verbs (Helping Verbs): are used with action or copulative verbs to form some tenses, voices, or moods.

Common Modal Auxiliaries: be, do, have, can, may, will, shall, must, ought, might, could, should, would.

You may submit your essay tomorrow.

I should have met you at the station.

Elaine may, but Natalie would kiss the goat.



## GRAMMAR REVIEW XVIII

b) **Past Perfect**: (had + past participle); identifies an action that started in the past and finished before another action in the past.

John had finished cutting the lawn before Bill visited. (John's action of cutting lawn ended before a second past action—Bill's visiting—took place.)

I had had haddock before I had a headache. (First came the fish dinner, the haddock, and after that dinner ended, the headache occurred, also in the past.)

c) **Future Perfect** (will or shall have + past participle); identifies an action that will finish in the future before another future action occurs.

John will have worked twenty years fixing flats before he will retire. (John's work ends in the future before another action occurs in the future.)

**Note:** In such a construction, the usual practice is to replace the simple future ("will retire") with the present ("retires").

John will have worked twenty years fixing flats before he retires

I shall have visited my father's native country before I die.

(Both actions take place in the future. The one that finishes first—the visit—is in the future perfect tense; the one that comes next is in the simple future ("I shall die") or simple present tense ("I die").

### Voice of a Verb

Voice is the property of verbs (ONLY ACTION VERBS) identifying whether or not the subject acts.

**Active Voice:** the subject acts, acted, will act.

Louise ate the kohlrabis. (The subject, "Louise," acted.)

Monica plays the tuba at funerals. (The subject, "Monica," acts.)

**Passive Voice:** the subject is, was, will be acted upon; the subjects receives the action.

The passive voice consists of the verb "to be" in various forms + the past participle, and is followed by "by + the object.)

The kohlrabis were eaten by Louise.

The tuba is played at funerals by Monica.

Prefer the active voice, which is direct and simple and stresses the actor. The passive voice is wordy, hides the actor, and stresses the receiver of an action.

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XIX

### The Mood of the Verb

Mood (mode) refers to the manner in which speaker means a verb.

English has three moods:

- a) **Indicative Mood**: the most prevalent mood; the speaker states a real or apparent fact or asks a questioning amounting to whether something is a fact.

Forms: (Present Tense)		(Past Tense)	
I am	I ask	I was	I asked
you are	you ask	you were	you asked
he is	he asks	he was	he asked
we are	we ask	we were	we asked
you are	you ask	you were	you asked
they are	they ask	they were	they asked

Examples: She is a fine musician.  
Lola sat on the piano and sang a sad song.  
Do you fix typewriters?

- b) **Imperative Mood**: the speaker commands gently or forcefully.

Forms: use the infinitive (“to help”), but omit the “to” (“Help”).

Examples: Be good. Come here.  
Buy my Studebaker and my Victrola, please.

- c) **Subjective Mood**: the speaker states something hypothetical, unlikely, unreal, wished for, requested, demanded, prayer for, or impossible, or makes a parliamentary motion.

Forms: (Present Tense)		(Past Tense)	
I be	I ask	I were	I asked
you be	you ask	you were	you asked
he be	he ask	he were	he asked
we be	we ask	we were	we asked
you be	you ask	you were	you asked
they be	they ask	they were	they asked

Examples: If she were twenty years younger, I would marry her.  
I demand that the speaker be censored.  
God save the Queen! God bless you. Thy kingdom come.  
We move that parliamentary procedure be laid aside.  
We request that the janitor do the windows.

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XX

### VERBALS: THE INFINITIVE

English has three verbals: verb forms used as parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, adverbs) other than verbs, but which retain properties of the verb (they take objects and are modified by adverbs). They are the infinitive, participle, and gerund.

**Infinitive:** the pure form of the verb, the form that appears in the dictionary.

The infinitive usually is preceded by “to,” as in “to walk,” but it also appears alone after verbal auxiliaries, as in “can do,” “must fix,” or “may play.”

The infinitive has tense and voice forms:

Present tense, Active voice:	to call
Present tense, Passive voice:	to be called
Present Perfect tense, Active voice:	to have called
Present Perfect tense, Passive voice:	to have been called

The infinitive may have a subject (always in the objective case), an object or complement, and adverb modifiers. The infinitive, its subject, object, and modifiers, is called **an infinitive phrase**.

Lola wanted **me to pluck the chicken now**.

Subject: me

Infinitive: to pluck

Object: chicken

Adverb: now

**Uses:** Infinitives may function as three parts of speech:

a) Adjective: Oh, give me something **to remember you**.

(The phrase describes the pronoun “something.”)

Egbert gave me a chance **to help**.

(The phrase describes the noun “chance.”)

Show me the way **to go home**.

(The phrase describes the noun “way.”)

b) Adverb: The baby is well enough **to go home from the hospital**.

(The phrase describes the adverb “enough.”)

The boy left the school **to go home**.

(The phrase describes the verb “left”: the phrase tells why the boy left school.)

c) Noun: Would you like **to swing on a star?**

(The phrase is the direct object of the verb “like.”)

**To dream the impossible dream** is my quest..

(The phrase is subject of the verb “is.”)

Split infinitives (modifiers placed between “to” and the verb) are usually clumsy and should be avoided: “**to boldly go** where no man has gone before” is better as “**to go boldly** where no man has gone before.”

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXI

### VERBALS: THE PARTICIPLE

The participle is the second verbal and is always an adjective.

There are two forms:

a) Present Participle always ends in -ing.

Active Voice:           telling

Passive Voice:          being told

b) Past Participle usually ends in -ed or -t (weak verbs), but strong verbs (irregular verbs) have distinct forms. Use this construction to identify the past participle: "I have \_\_\_\_\_."

I have earned.                   I have felt.

I have seen.                       I have known.

I have understood.               I have contributed.

I have wanted.                   I have swum.

(The past participle is always used in the perfect tenses and the passive voice: "The puppy was bitten by the tarantula.")

Active Voice:           told

Perfect Tense:         having told

Passive Voice:         been told

Perfect Tense:         having been told.

Participles remain verbs and can take adverb modifiers and objects; the participle, its modifiers, and its objects or complements are called the participial phrase.

The boy, building his sand castle carefully, was swept into the ocean and drowned.

Participial Phrase: building his sand castle carefully

(the phrase modifies "boy")

Participle:   building

Adverb:      carefully

Object:      castle.

Other examples of participles and participial phrases:

The weeping willow fell on the mailman

Dancing the mazurka violently, Edna died.

Gus was cut by the window, broken in the storm.

**Note:** Place the participial phrase next to the word it modifies to avoid confusion.

Misplaced Modifier: (participle is in the wrong place): Eating clover, Waldo saw the cow. (Waldo is not eating clover. "Waldo saw the cow eating clover.")

Dangling Modifier (modifying nothing in the sentence): Riding in the glass-bottomed boat, hundreds of tropical fish could be seen.

(Who is riding in the boat? Not the fish! "Riding in the glass-bottomed boat, we saw hundreds of tropical fish.")

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXII

### VERBALS: THE GERUND

The third and simplest verbal is the gerund.

- The gerund always ends in -ing (like the present participle)
- The gerund is always a noun (the participle is an adjective).

Thus, the gerund functions as a subject, direct object, or object of a preposition—all jobs of a noun..

Gerunds remain verbs, can take adverbial modifiers, and can take objects.

Preparing the meatloaf properly requires skill.

Gerund Phrase:	Preparing the meatloaf properly
Gerund:	Preparing
Object:	meatloaf
Adverb:	properly

The whole phrase acts as the subject of the verb “requires.”  
Subjects are nouns or pronouns.

Other examples: Skiing can be dangerous. (The gerund is the subject.)

Lola prefers cheating to studying.

(The gerund “cheating” is the direct object of the verb;  
the gerund “studying” is object of the preposition “to.”)

By eating sixty hot dogs, Joe won the contest.

(the gerund phrase is object of the preposition “by.”)

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXIII

### PARTS OF A SENTENCE: THE PHRASE

A phrase is a group of words acting together as a single part of speech but containing no statement (meaning no subject and predicate).

**Prepositional phrase**: a preposition + its object and anything modifying the object:

in	the summer
around	the world
by	the beautiful blue sea
over	the icebox
without	help
through	the golden years

Prepositional phrases can be **adjectives**:

The fuzzy hat **on the shelf** is mine.

(the phrase describes the noun “hat”)

The chicken **with blue lips** ate the blueberry pie.

(the phrase describes the noun “chicken”)

Give me a drink **of Diet Cherry Dr. Pepper**.

(the phrase describes the noun “drink”)

Prepositional phrases can be **adverbs**.

I began the class **with vigor**.

(the phrase describes the verb “began”: began how?)

I began the class **at noon**.

(the phrase describes the verb “began”: began when?)

I began the class **in the library**.

(the phrase describes the verb “began”: began where?)

Hilda went **to the fishmonger**.

(the phrase describes the verb “went”: went where?)

Louie played the glockenspiel **for six hours**.

(the phrase describes the verb “played”: played how much?)

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXIV

**Infinitive phrase:** an infinitive + its adverb modifier(s) + its object(s) or complement(s); if the infinitive has a subject, the subject is in the objective case.

to run	aggressively	
to buy		new socks
to cook	with care	an amblongus
to spin	slowly	
to be		a cheerleader
me to help	with the dishes	

**Infinitive phrases act as nouns:**

I like to dance the foxtrot.

(the infinitive phrase is a noun, direct object of the verb “like.”)

To be still in a fire drill is necessary.

(the infinitive phrase is a noun, subject of the verb “is.”)

We want to eat string bean cookies.

(the infinitive phrase is a noun, direct object of the verb “want.”)

**Infinitive phrases act as adjectives.**

Show me the way to go home.

(the infinitive phrase is an adjective describing the noun “way.”)

I have a need to pet a tiger.

(the infinitive phrase is an adjective describing the noun “need.”)

Buy him a book to read on the beach.

(the infinitive phrase is an adjective describing the noun “book.”)

**Infinitive phrases act as adverbs.**

Herb left to buy a Clark Bar.

(the infinitive phrase is an adverb describing why he left. “Left” is a verb.)

Lou was eager to marry Lola.

(the infinitive phrase is an adverb modifying the adjective “eager.”)

You must hurry to catch the bus.

(the infinitive phrase is an adverb describing why you must hurry. “Hurry” is a verb.)

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXV

**Participial phrase:** a participle + its adverb modifier(s) + the object(s) + the object's modifier (s)

running	quickly
kicked	in the shins
given	a wonderful party
frying	liver
praying	sincerely for help
spoken	in haste
spitting	watermelon seeds
defeating	the Cubs and the Dodgers

All participles and participial phrases act as **adjectives**:

Sailing on the lake, Melanie died.

(the participial phrase describes the noun "Melanie.")

The boy, fighting his best battle, won.

(the participial phrase describes the noun "boy.")

Having whirled through the floor, Rumpelstiltskin disappeared.

(the participial phrase describes the noun "Rumpelstiltskin.")

Walter, boarding the plane, tripped on the stewardess and died.

(the participial phrase describes the noun "Walter.")

The broken cup fell out of the rumpled bag.

(the participles describe the nouns "cup" and "bag.")

**Note:** There are two kinds of participles:

**Present Participle:** ends in "ing.

Dancing bears love tourists viewing them.

The children delighted in the bubbling brook.

**Past Participle:** usually ends in "ed," but irregular verbs have distinct past participles easily found by placing them in the phrase "have \_\_\_\_\_."

The meatballs, cooked in kidney sauce, tasted terrible.

Filtered water is pure.

He has seen all the Claudette Colbert movies.

We were blessed with a beautiful day, filled with sunlight.

Always remember to place the participial phrase near the word it modifies:

**Misplaced Modifier** (participial phrase is modifying the wrong thing):

I saw a serious accident walking across the street.

(the accident is walking across the street?)

Correct: Walking across the street, I saw a serious accident.

**Dangling Modifier** (participial phrase modified nothing in the sentence.)

Watching the horror movie, goosebumps rose on my spine.

(goosebumps were watching the movie? Who was?)

Correct: While I was watching the movie, goosebumps rose on my spine.

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXVI

**Gerund phrase: a gerund + its modifier(s) + its object(s) + its objects' modifiers**

Kicking	powerfully	a football
Playing	superbly	the tuba
Thinking	clearly	
Sipping	slowly	a Diet Cherry Dr. Pepper
Baking		bunny cookies

All gerund phrases are nouns:

**Buying Christmas presents is a chore.**

(the gerund phrase is a noun, subject of the verb “is.”)

**Bernard appreciates my telling him the truth.**

(the gerund phrase is a noun, direct object of the verb “appreciates.”)

**Daphne likes raising daffodils.**

(the gerund phrase is object of the verb “likes.”)

**NOTE: NO PHRASE MAKES A STATEMENT!**

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXVII

### PARTS OF A SENTENCE: THE CLAUSE

A clause is a group of words containing a statement (a subject and a predicate):

<u>Subject:</u> (the topic of the statement)	<u>Predicate:</u> (the point made about the subject)
Caitlin	finished eating the knockwurst.
I	love you.
Jack and Jill	went up the hill.
(You)	Drop dead.
The apple	was eaten by Eve.
Claudette Colbert	is a splendid actress and a wonderful lady.

Predicates: consist of a verb and its complement and modifier(s).  
All predicates must have a verb.

If the Predicate has an action verb, the predicate might be:

-a verb standing alone:

Fred laughed.

-a verb and its adverb modifier(s):

Fred laughed loudly and continually.

-a verb and its direct object (the thing affected by the action of the verb):

Daphne broke the lamp.

-a verb with an indirect object (the person or thing receiving the direct object) and a direct object:

Give me your coat. (= Give to me your coat; “me” is the indirect object, the person receiving the coat, the direct object)

-verb may take an objective complement (a noun or adjective added to and completing the direct object):

You made me your friend. (“Me” is the direct object; “friend” is the objective complement)

You made me happy. (“Happy” is the objective complement)

If the predicate has a copulative verb, the predicate might be:

-a verb and an adjective (predicate adjective);

Caitlin is noisy.

-a verb and a noun or pronoun (predicate noun or pronoun; predicate nominative (always in the nominative case)):

The winner will be Sally.

It is I.

Toys are we.

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXVIII

### Types of Clauses:

#### INDEPENDENT (MAIN, PRINCIPAL) CLAUSE:

Such a clause makes sense by itself. It stands as a complete idea.

Butter tastes better than margarine.

Pray for me.

When Ollie got in trouble, he called on Stan.

#### DEPENDENT (MINOR, SUBORDINATE) CLAUSE:

Such a clause does not make sense on its own. To have meaning, it must be attached to an Independent Clause.

Dependent clauses begin in two ways:

a. with a relative pronoun (who, whose, whom, what, which, that):

The book which you borrowed is valuable.

The man who fell off the bridge was eaten by a shark.

b. with a subordinate conjunction (if, when, where, how, why, because, since, as, although, while, after, before . . . )

Since you went away, Lola got engaged.

They know where you hid the money.

When Ollie got in trouble, he called on Stan.

Dependent clauses serve as parts of speech:

As nouns:

We saw what the children did.

(The minor clause = direct object of the verb "saw.")

Whoever needs a ride can call on me.

(The minor clause is subject of the verb "can call.")

As adjectives:

The apple which you ate was mine.

(The minor clause describes the noun "apple.")

Buy a pie that is juicy.

(The minor clause describes the noun "pie.")

As adverbs:

Waldo left the room because he was ill.

(The minor clause explains why Walter left.)

Taste the good life while you can.

(The minor clause explains when one should taste.)

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXIX

**Note on Clauses:** All independent clauses are stressed in the reading of a sentence. All dependent clauses are unstressed because the contents are less important than what is in the independent clause.  
**SO: MAIN IDEAS go in MAIN CLAUSES;  
MINOR IDEAS go in MINOR CLAUSES.**

### THE SENTENCE:

A sentence is a group of words containing at least one independent clause.

#### **Types of Sentence:**

a) **Simple Sentence:** contain one independent clause and no dependent clauses.

The boy swallowed a mosquito.

Do chickens have lips?

Thirty eggplants fell off the shelf.

b) **Compound Sentence:** contains two or more independent clauses and no dependent clauses. The clauses are joined by either a comma + coordinate conjunction (and, yet, but, or nor, for) OR a semicolon. Joining independent clauses is a process called **COORDINATION**.

Lorraine fell into the well, but Edgar did not care.

Mares eat oats; does eat oats; little lambs eat ivy.

Bill ran home, Wanda ran with him, yet both were late.

**Note:** - Omitting the comma between the two clauses may confuse:

The apple was red and yellow was the banana.

(One might think that the apple was red and yellow.)

- Retaining the comma but omitting the conjunction is called **comma splice**, an error.

We bought a new car, it broke down immediately.

- Omitting both the comma and the conjunction is called a **run-on** or **fused sentence**, a serious error.

Children played tiddly-winks adults played Scrabble.

c) **Complex Sentence:** contains at least one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. The dependent clause begins with a relative pronoun (who, which, what, that) or a subordinate conjunction (while, because, as, since, although, after, before, since, until, etc.). Creating a minor clause is the process called **SUBORDINATION**. The independent clause is the important point in the sentence; the dependent clause is less important information .

When the moon turns blue, I shall marry you, (Main clause is underlined.)

I heard your cry, while I was eating a taco.

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXX

### THE SENTENCE FRAGMENT

**Any group of words punctuated like a sentence (beginning with a capitalized word and concluding with end punctuation) but containing no independent clause is a sentence fragment. In formal writing, sentence fragments are usually forbidden, but they are common and acceptable in conversation and informal writing.**

**Sample Sentence Fragments:**

**Yes. (no independent clause)**

**Since she broke her engagement with the man she hoped to marry. (No independent clause)**

**The man in the grey flannel suit on the Third Avenue El. (No independent clause)**

**Rushing across the great plain at midnight. (No independent clause)**

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXXI

### PUNCTUATION

**Punctuation is a system of pauses to give clarity to what was said and to convey meaning, emphasis, and tone.**

**Note how punctuation changes meaning:**

**A woman without her man is nothing.  
A woman: without her, man is nothing.**

**Note how punctuation changes tone:**

**I love you. (a factual statement; no emotion)  
I love you! (an emotional statement)  
I love you? (a doubtful; statement)**

**Note how punctuation changes clarity:**

**Let's eat, Momma. (a clear request)  
Let's eat Momma. (a gruesome prospect)**

### END PUNCTUATION

**End punctuation completes a sentence:**

**Period: a serious, calm, unemotional statement of fact.**

**Vendettas are common among vengeful men.**

**Question Mark: asks a question in a doubtful situation.**

**Are you sure that the year 2000 began a new millennium?**

**Exclamation Point: shows a strong emotion or strong command.**

**Close the door now!  
How disgusting is that!**

## GRAMMAR REVIEW XXXII

### THE COMMA

The comma (,) is a very brief pause. It is not a substitution for any other punctuation mark.

Its uses are many, the chief of which are these:

1. To separate independent clauses in a compound sentence when the clauses are connected by a coordinate conjunction (and, yet, but, or, nor, for)

Mares eat oats, and does eat oats, and little lambs eat ivy.

Wordsworth is a famous poet, but he is also a great critic.

*Comma Splice*: omission of the coordinate conjunction. An error.

The book was opened, the page was ripped.

*Run-on Sentence (Fused Sentence)*: omission of the coordinate conjunction and the comma. An error.

The book was opened the page was ripped.

2. To separate items in a series of more than two (the serial comma)

The desk contained ink, papers, a lamp, and a map.

Wynken, Blynken, and Nod one night sailed off in a wooden shoe.

NOTE; Never insert a comma when there are only two items in the series:

The desk contained ink and papers.

Do retain the comma between the last two items in the series even when they are linked by a coordinate conjunction:

At the picnic, we played games, ate lunch, and told stories.

3. To separate nonrestrictive modifiers from the rest of the sentence

A nonrestrictive modifier is a word, phrase, or clause not essential in the sentence.

My only brother, who lives in Brooklyn, fell into the canal and drowned.

(The clause, "who lives in Brooklyn," is not needed to identify the brother, since the writer has only one brother.)

My brother who lives in Brooklyn fell into the canal and drowned.

(the clause, "who lives in Brooklyn," is a restrictive clause, one needed to identify the brother, since the writer has three brothers living in different places. Thus, the clause is not surrounded by commas.)

NOTE: If I do need the clause, I don't need the commas; if I don't need the clause, I do need the commas.

## GRAMMAR NOTES XXXIII

### 4. To separate appositives from the rest of the sentence

An appositive is an alternate identification.

Edgar Allan Poe, author of “The Pit and the Pendulum,” once lived in the Bronx.

Abraham Lincoln, sixteenth president of the United States, fought to preserve the Union.

The underlined are the appositives.

### 5. To separate parenthetical elements and transitions from the rest of the sentence

A parenthetical element is a comment that interrupts the sentence.

A transition is a word or phrase moving a thought from a previous sentence or paragraph (however, therefore, thus, nevertheless, etc.).

Your work, I am sure, will be challenging.

William said, however, that he would be available for work.

### 6. To separate introductory words, phrases, or clauses

Consequently, all the poinsettias died in the cold. (A word introduces the main clause.)

In the summer, children play Giant Steps. (A phrase introduces the main clause.)

Since you lied to me, I no longer trust you. (A minor clause introduces the main clause.)

### 7. To separate a city from a state or country

Brooklyn, New York, is my home town.

Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, is that nation’s capital.

NOTE: Commas go before and after the state or country.

### 8. To separate a day from a year

January 31, 2016, is National Gorilla Suit Day.

May 9, 2016, is National Lost Sock Day.

NOTE: Commas go before and after the year.

## GRAMMAR NOTES XXXIV

### 9. To separate direct address from the rest of the sentence

Direct address means that the speaker is naming the person to whom he is speaking.

Rodney, peel me a grape.

I asked you, Miss Gomez, to bury the dead cat.

And now, ladies and gentlemen, here is tonight's speaker!

### 10. To introduce a short quotation or to separate an interruption in a quotation

Paul asked, "Where is my eggplant?"

"If I survive this semester," Monica said, "I will need a vacation."

### 11. To prevent misreading

Confusing: Inside the house was brightly decorated.

Clear: Inside, the house was brightly decorated.

## GRAMMAR NOTES XXXV

### THE SEMICOLON

The semicolon (;) is a pause longer than a comma but shorter than a period. It is not interchangeable with a comma.

- a. Use a semicolon to separate independent clauses in a compound sentence.

Frank chose a hot dog; Mary chose a hamburger.

Carson City is the capital of Nevada; Salt Lake City is the capital of Utah.

- b. Use a semicolon to separate items in a series of more than two items when the items contain a comma.

Mr. Warner, my teacher, Mrs. Costa, my aunt, Miss Rudolph, my colleague, and Mr. Wilder came with me.

Problem: How many came with me: four, five, six, or seven? Is Mr. Warner my teacher? Is Mrs. Costa my aunt? Is Miss Rudolph my colleague?

If they are my teacher, aunt, and colleague, then I need to use a semicolon to separate clearly the persons:

Mr. Warner, my teacher; Mrs. Costa, my aunt; Miss Rudolph, my colleague; and Mr. Wilder came with me.

### THE COLON

The colon (:) is the Ed Sullivan of punctuation marks. It introduces a list, a series, and a long quotation.

--Please bring to the picnic the following things: mustard, ketchup, watermelon, bagels, salt and pepper, and ant traps.

Note: the colon comes after the direct object. Do not write "Please bring to the picnic: mustard . . . ." You need a direct object before the dcolon.

--Tocqueville said: "In the United States, we easily perceive how the legal profession is qualified by its attributes . . . to neutralize the vices inherent in popular government."

## GRAMMAR NOTES XXXVI

### THE APOSTROPHE

The apostrophe indicates the omission of one or more letters. It must be used; it is not optional.

#### Uses of the Apostrophe:

1. Possessive Case:

Singular nouns and most pronouns form their possessive case with the apostrophe + “s.”

man = man’s

dog = dog’s

Richard Rodgers = Richard Rodgers’s (or Rodgers’)

NOTE: Personal pronouns (I, you, he, she, it, we, they) and the pronoun “who” do not use the apostrophe in the possessive case (my, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs, whose).

Plural nouns ending in “s” form their possessive case by adding only the apostrophe:

boys = boys’

walruses = walruses’

Plural nouns ending in a consonant other than “s” form their plurals by adding an apostrophe + “s.”

women = women’s

2. Contractions

A contraction combines two words into one by omitting one or more letters; the omission is marked by an apostrophe.

do not = don’t

have not = haven’t

of the clock = o’clock

it is = it’s [“its” is the possessive case of “it.”]

3. Plural of Letters and Numbers

The plural of letters and numbers uses the apostrophe:

He wrote six “9’s on the blackboard.

Watch your P’s and Q’s.

## GRAMMAR NOTES XXXVII

### QUOTATION MARKS

**DOUBLE QUOTATION MARKS** indicate an exact reproduction of a person's words. Introduce a short quotation with a comma and a long quotation with a colon, especially if the long quotation is a complete sentence. A quotation that is part of the main statement gets no introductory punctuation:

Walter said, "I will call you later."

Shakespeare wrote: "The quality of mercy is not strained. It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven upon the place beneath. It is twice blest. It blesseth him that gives and him that takes."

If you say "the end is near," I shall ignore you.

Omit quotation marks around an indirect quotation, that is, a paraphrase of someone's statement:

Walter said that he will call later.

**SINGLE QUOTATION MARKS** indicate a quotation inside a quotation:

The professor said, "Memorize Hamlet's speech beginning 'To be or not to be.'"

### ALTERATION OF QUOTATIONS

Quotations are the exact words of a writer or speaker and may not be altered without advising the reader that they have been changed.

**ELLIPSIS** indicates the omission of one or more words in a quotation. The ellipsis is **THREE SPACED PERIOD**.

Shakespeare wrote," The quality of mercy . . . droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven . . . ." (Note the final period after the omitted ending of the sentence.)

The king said, "I demand your loyalty. . . . Then, I will serve you" (54), (Note that the first sentence is complete, ends with a period, and a following comment is omitted after the complete sentence.)

**BRACKETS** indicate an addition or change in a quotation, even a spelling or punctuation change. The word *sic* reproduces exactly a mistake.

The speaker said, "The murder of President [John F.] Kennedy was a turning point in modern American hestory [sic]."

## GRAMMAR NOTES XXXVIII

### PUNCTUATION OF QUOTATIONS

**In the United States, periods and commas always go inside the quotation marks unless something like documentation follows the quotation:**

**The bus driver said, “Please step to the rear.”**

**The author wrote, “The neoclassical movement perished in revolution” (83).**

**Note: In the rest of the world, commas and periods are placed outside the quotation marks.**

**Colons, semicolons, and dashes always go outside the quotation marks:**

**The speaker represented a serious organization, “dedicated to the preservation of mosquitos”: The Calamine Lotion League.**

**Question marks and exclamation points are placed inside quotation marks if the quotation is a question or exclamation; if not, they go outside the quotation marks:**

**I asked, “Where is my gorilla suit?”**

**Miss Landers shouted, “Beaver, stop pulling Judy’s pigtails!”**

**Did you ask, “Why are we having pumpkin soup for supper?”**

**NOTE: You need only one question mark when a quotation that is a question comes at the end of a sentence that is a question.**

**Did my friend say, “I will be late for the sock hop”?**

## GRAMMAR NOTES XXXIX

### ITALICS, UNDERLINING, AND QUOTATION MARKS FOR TITLES

**Italicize** titles of a complete work (book, newspaper, magazine, periodical, full-length poem or play, film, television series, website, pamphlet, paintings).

**NOTE**”: Italics are indicated on a typewriter or in handwritten material by **underlining**.

Henry James’s novel *Washington Square* was made into the film *The Heiress*. The website *MLA Style* is helpful.

**Quote** titles of any work that is part of a larger work (a chapter, essay, short poem or play, newspaper article, magazine article, short story, television series episode, web page).

The short story “Clay” appears in the anthology *Dubliners*.

*Note: Quote the Part; Italicize the Whole.* Quote the title of something that is part of a whole work, but italicize the title of the whole work.

### HYPHEN

The hyphen pulls together, joins, two or more words into a single term:

Zaza made a matter-of-fact statement.  
He threw his mother-in-law down the stairs.

In a paper, when a word at the end of a line is too long to remain in the margin, you may break it by syllabi, but not if the word is a single syllable. The hyphen pulls together the two parts of the broken word.

When the maid entered the room, she was shocked by the cumbersome arrangement of furniture.

### DASH

The dash indicates the separation of a parenthetical remark, an interruption, or a sharp turn of thought in a sentence. If typed, it is two hyphens with no space before, between, or after the hyphens.

When the speech ended—it was nearly three hours long!—we collapsed in exhaustion.  
Some of you—I won’t mention who—lied to me

## GRAMMAR NOTES XL

### PARENTHESES

**Parentheses separate extraneous comments or explanatory remarks from the rest of the sentence. They are stronger separators than commas and dashes:**

**Mildred wore (we really should say sported) the most flamboyant hat at the wedding,**

**Senator Bogle (D-NY) gave an interview.**

**The captain said to the crew, “Swab the decks!” (98).**

**Note that the sentence period goes after a final parenthesis.**