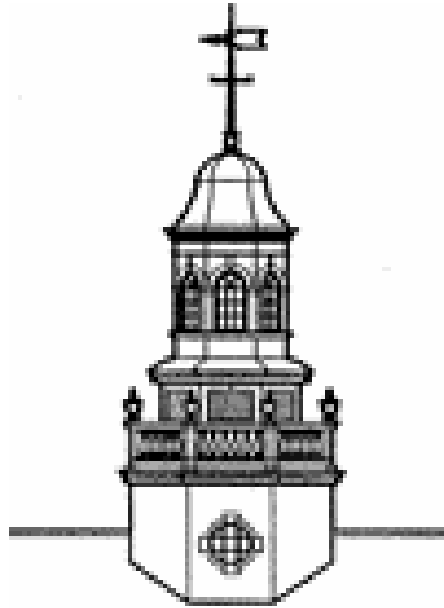


MMS
Student Writing
Handbook



Middlesex Middle School
Darien, CT

Property of



*Middlesex Middle School
would like to thank the following
for their help in creating this handbook:*

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Dear Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Graders:

Here is a one-stop resource for all your writing needs. Whether you are writing a research report for your social studies class, creating a project for your science teacher, or writing an essay for your English exam, you will find the answers to your most common questions about formatting, spelling, and conventions in this handbook. Use it to correct common spelling errors, especially with confusing words like *effect* and *affect* and *accept* and *except*. Find out where to put commas, semi-colons, colons, and hyphens. Wondering what the format of a research project, business letter, or essay is? You'll find it inside this portable handbook. It is a resource for all your writing needs.

Documenting sources for a research report can be challenging, but with this handbook, the answers are at your fingertips. The section on **citing sources** will show you the appropriate way to document whatever sources you use so you can avoid plagiarism.

The **rubric section** has taken the guesswork out of what makes writing strong. It has the explanations of the *Six Traits of Good Writing* to help you evaluate your writing. Use this section to assess and fix your papers yourself before handing them in. We'll be happier with what we receive, and you will be happier with what you submit.

If you have a question this handbook cannot answer, please let your language arts teachers know. It will be added to the next printing. The handbook will continually be updated, so your feedback is important.

The goal of this handbook is to help make the writing process easier. Just as carpenters need their tool belts when creating their masterpieces, writers also need their "tools" when creating their writing masterpieces!

Sincerely,

Your Language Arts Teachers

The Writing Process

Many different genres of writing will be written in middle school, including the following:

- **Narratives:** These tell a story by using main events, character development, conflict, and resolution.
- **Expository essays and research reports:** These use information gathered from other sources to explain or compare and elaborate on a given topic.
- **Persuasive essays:** These persuade the audience to agree with the writer's point of view.

The writing process is divided into the following steps:

Prewriting: You will begin by organizing and choosing your topics and then create a graphic organizer/web. What is the purpose of your paper? Who is your audience? These activities will help you decide what genre is best to use.

Drafting: Create your thesis statement, which is your statement of purpose and contains your main idea. Write your introduction and body, organizing your thoughts into paragraphs and connecting them using transitions to help your writing flow. Write a conclusion that demonstrates a deeper understanding of your thesis statement.

Revision: Either read your essay out loud or have someone else read it out loud to you so you can hear any awkward constructions, repetitions, or disorganization. Consider using any suggestions given by others. Check your piece against the *Six Traits of Good Writing*.

Proofreading: Check your piece for proper use of conventions (spelling, capitalization, and punctuation).

Publishing: Create a polished, finished product, using ink, cursive writing, or word processing.



Transition or Linking Words[Ⓢ]

Use transition or linking words to:

Show location

above
across
against
along
among
around
behind
below
beneath
beside
between
beyond
by
down
in back of
in front of
inside
over
near
off
onto
on top of
outside
throughout
to the left
to the right
under

Compare two things

likewise.....as
in the same wayalso
similarly.....like

Add information

again	another
also	and
as well	besides
finally	in addition
for instance	for example
moreover	additionally
along with	next

Conclude or summarize

finally as a result lastly
therefore to sum up
in conclusion
all in all

Clarify

for instance
in other words
that is

Contrast things (show differences)

but
still
although
on the other hand
however
yet
otherwise
even though

Emphasize a point

again truly
to repeat in fact
for this reason
to emphasize

Show time

about	first	meanwhile	soon	then	afterward
after	second	today	later	next	yesterday
at	third	tomorrow	during	finally	as soon as
before	till	next week	when	until	immediately

[Ⓢ] Sebranek, Patrick, Dave Kemper and Verne Meyer. *Write Source 2000*. Wilmington: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1999.

Formatting a Business Letter

The business letter presents complete information in the order below.

Heading - The heading gives the writer's complete address, either printed in the letterhead or typed out, plus the date.

Inside Address – The inside address gives the reader's name and complete mailing address (including the company name).

Salutation – The salutation personalizes the letter. Use *Dear* with people only, not department or company names. If the person has a title, make sure to include it. If the person's title is a single word or very short, place it after the name, separated by a comma. Longer titles go on a separate line.

If you are writing to an organization or a business, but not a specific person, begin the inside address with the name of the organization or business.

Use Mr. or Ms. plus the person's last name. Do not guess at Miss or Mrs.

If you do not know the name of the person who will read your letter, use one of these salutations followed by a colon:

Dear Sir or Madam:

To Whom It May Concern:

Body – The body contains your message in single-spaced paragraphs with double spacing between them (do not indent the paragraphs). The body of your letter is organized in three parts: (1) the beginning states why you are writing, (2) the middle provides all the needed details, and (3) the ending focuses on what should happen next.

If the letter is longer than one page, the second page requires a heading. In the upper left-hand corner, type the reader's name, the page number, and the date.

Complimentary Closing – The closing politely ends the message with a parting word or phrase – *Sincerely*, *Yours sincerely*, *Yours truly*, - followed by a comma. Capitalize only the first word of complimentary closings.

Signature – The signature makes the letter official. It includes the writer's hand-written name and corresponding typed name.

Initials, Enclosures, Copies – When someone types the letter for the writer, that person's **initials** appear in lowercase after the writer's capitalized initials, separated by a colon. If a document (brochure, form, copy) is **enclosed** with the letter, the word *Enclosure* or *Encl.* appears below the initials. If a **copy** of the letter is sent elsewhere, type "cc:" (for old-fashioned "carbon copy) or HP:tm, and follow with the name of the person or department receiving the copy.

Sample Business Letter

Mr. Harry Potter
Gryffindor House
Hogwarts School of Witchcraft and Wizardry
April 13, 2003

Corporate Headquarters
Nimbus, Inc.
Diagon Alley
London, England 74620

To Whom It May Concern:

I am very dissatisfied with my Nimbus 2000 broom. Recently, I was practicing for Quidditch when my broom was hit by a bludger. Upon impact, my broom snapped in half. It doesn't seem that this should have happened to a brand new broom. Other teammates have been hit by bludgers, and their brooms are still in one piece. I believe that my broom had a defect and would like very much for you to research this. I have gathered all of the pieces and enclosed them so that you may examine them closely.

I felt fortunate that I was not seriously injured and hope you give this matter your utmost attention. I would hate to think that other Quidditch players are in danger if they are using a Nimbus 2000.

I will need to purchase a new broom, and under the circumstances, I feel that a full refund is warranted. I was very pleased to be the owner of Nimbus 2000 and with a refund, I can purchase another.

Please respond quickly. My Quidditch career depends on it.

Sincerely,

Harry Potter

Harry Potter
Encl.

Formatting a Report

There are three major parts of a report: a title page, the body or text, and reference list or “Works Consulted.” Following is a brief description of each part:

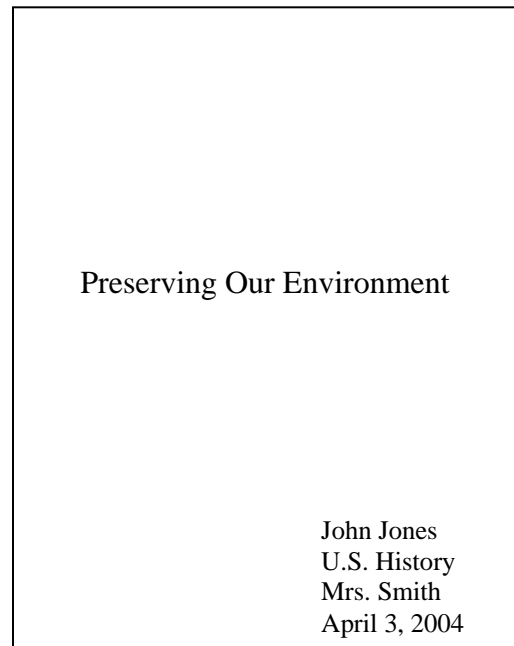
Title Page – The title page presents the title of the report, the name of the writer, the name of the class, the name of the teacher, and the date (see example below). The title should be centered and placed one-third of the way down the page.

Body or Text – The body or text is the message the writer wants to convey to the reader. It begins with an introduction that grabs the reader’s attention and sets a clear statement of purpose (thesis) for the paper. It must end with a conclusion that does more than merely restate what has already been said.

Works Consulted – The final page of your report should be an alphabetical listing of all the reference materials used in writing your report. This listing is called “Works Consulted” (see the “Document Your Resources” section of this book for more information).

Standard Format for a Report – Use when your teacher has given no other specific directions.

- Times New Roman or Arial font, 12 point
- Double spacing
- Title capitalized correctly and centered
- Paragraphs indented
- Page numbers in upper right-hand corner (do not put number on title page – see page set-up in Header tool bar)
- Title Page (See example to the right.)



Document Your Resources

Before you begin to write your research report, you must find information pertaining to your topic. The resources you will find include books, newspaper and magazine articles, and Internet sites. Information gathered from these resources will help you learn about your topic, narrow it to a manageable size, form opinions, and maybe even open up new areas of inquiry. Because you are obtaining information from different sources, you must give credit where credit is due; i.e., you must cite your sources. Otherwise, it is plagiarism.

What is plagiarism? It is taking someone else's ideas, language, or creations as your own; and, it is illegal. It is a form of stealing, just like stealing someone's car or purse is illegal.

Researching and reading others' ideas help you form your own opinions. When opinions are formed, they need to be backed by facts. That is where your sources come in, and why you must give sources credit for helping you come to your own conclusions. Giving due credit does not lessen the value of your paper – it only increases it because you have supported your ideas with reliable information.

What's the easiest way to make sure you document your resources? As you research your paper, write down where you found the information you copied or paraphrased. That way, once you begin to write your paper, you will be able to cite your resources as you go along. If you are copying a direct quote, place quotation marks around it and write down the resource and page number after it. If you are paraphrasing (using your OWN words), write down your resource with page number(s). There is no need to document *every* idea – just statistics or those that are original to an author and not common knowledge.

Compare writing a paper to painting a room. If you don't sand and prepare the walls and windows of your room properly, your final job will be mediocre, and the old paint will come through the new. If you don't cite your resources as you do the research, when it comes time to write your paper, you won't be prepared. The final version of your paper will only be a cover-up for the real sources of your ideas. The true resources will come through the lines of your paper to reveal someone else's ideas, not yours. Take the time right from the beginning to document your research, and you will have no problems when it comes to writing your paper. **When citing your sources, follow the basic guidelines in this handbook or for a more detailed guideline, consult the MMS web site.**



Essay and Research Papers

Making Reference to Works of Others in Your Text

In a research paper, writers traditionally identify the source of words or ideas that they quote, paraphrase, or summarize from outside sources. If someone has spent time and effort on an important study, and you use that information, a reference note is your way of saying thanks. Even more importantly, it is dishonest to take credit for another person's original words or idea. To do so would be an act of plagiarism.

Citing a source gives readers a first-hand look at materials you have used to develop and support your ideas. A doubting reader may question your statistics and want to check up on you. A reader who is genuinely interested in your subject may want to use your sources to learn more about it.

Cite references to identify the source of all material that has been directly quoted. Strong writers keep direct quotations to a minimum. *Include as few direct quotations as possible and keep them as short as possible.* As a general rule, quote directly only when the exact wording of your source is vital to understanding the point or when the source has said something especially eloquent or memorable. Otherwise, paraphrase or summarize the ideas. An exception could be a literary essay when the language of the text becomes a critical aspect of the essay.

Parenthetical Citations

- **When you use a direct quotation, (as when you paraphrase or summarize), introduce it with a running acknowledgement, as in the following example:**
 - Wordsworth wrote that Romantic poetry was marked by a “spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings” (263).
 - Romantic poetry is characterized by the “spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings” (Wordsworth 263).
- **Even when you don't quote directly but summarize, or when you change your source's wording and restate the idea in your own language, you should still document your source.**
 - According to Erich Fromm, it is through the act of giving that we experience our fullest strength (29-31).
- **If you have not mentioned the author's name in the running acknowledgement, the entry should look like this:**
 - One psychologist believes that through the act of giving, we experience our fullest strength (Fromm 29-32).

- **If you have used two works by the same author, your citation should include a shortened title for the work you are quoting: it would look this way:**
 - According to Erich Fromm, it is through the act of giving that we experience our fullest strength(*Loving* 29-32)
- **If the work you are making reference to has no author, use an abbreviated version of the work’s title. For example:**
 - A Wordsworth critic once argued that his poems were too emotional (“Wordsworth is a Loser” 100).

Note: Unless the punctuation is part of directly quoted material, the punctuation marks appear *after* the parenthetical citation.

In all of these examples, you have used the *author-page method* of citation. This means that the author’s last name and the page number(s) from which the quotation is taken must appear in the text, and a complete reference should appear in your **Works Consulted** list at the end of the paper.

The author’s name may appear in the sentence itself or in parentheses following the quotation or paraphrase, but the page numbers should always appear in the parentheses, not in the text of your sentence.



Remember to cite your sources!

Quotations

When you directly quote the works of others in your paper, you will format quotations differently, depending on whether they are long or short quotations.

Short Quotations

To indicate short quotations (fewer than four typed lines of prose or three lines of poetry) enclose the quotation within double quotation marks and incorporate it into your text. Provide the author and page number following the quote. Question marks and exclamation points should appear within the quotation marks if they are a part of the quoted passage, but after the parenthetical citation if they are a part of your text.

(See examples on pages 29 and 30.)

Long Quotations

Place quotations longer than four typed lines in a separate block of typewritten lines, and *omit* quotation marks. Start the quotation on a new line, indented **one inch** from the left margin, and maintain double spacing. Your citation should come *after* the closing punctuation mark. When quoting poetry, maintain original line breaks. (**You should maintain double-spacing throughout your essay.**)

In Maya Angelou's book *The Heart of a Woman*, the main character states,

My marriage had shape, responsibility, and no romance, and although I was working ten hours a day as a reporter for the *Arab Observer*, my salary slipped away like sand in an hourglass. There was never enough. On the face of it things looked pretty bad, but I couldn't escape a cheeriness, which sat in my lap, lounged on my shoulders, and spread itself in the palms of my hands. I was, after all, living in Cairo, Egypt, working, paying my way. (238)

Note: Be sure to follow the long quote with a clear explanation of its significance. (Why did you include this quote in your paper? How does it serve to support your topic?)

Making a Works Consulted Page

A **Works Consulted** page gives full publication information for the works cited in your parenthetical notes. A reader who wants to follow up on your references to Erich Fromm, for instance, would find an entry like this:

Fromm, Erich. The Art of Loving. New York: Harper & Row, 1956.

This lets the reader see everything necessary to locate the book. Of course, a full **Works Consulted** would usually include more than one entry. Some entries might refer to books, others to magazines or professional journals. These entries are arranged in alphabetical order by the author's last name, and multi-line entries are set with hanging indents of one half inch. The titles can be underlined or typed in italics. The sample **Works Consulted** below illustrates the basic form to follow: (order of examples- book with one author, book with two authors, book with no author, encyclopedia, magazine with author, magazine with no author, newspaper, web site with author, web site with no author).

Works Consulted

Cushman, Karen. Matilda Bone. New York: Clarion Books, 2000.

Dale, George and Evelyn Butler. Alaska: the Lands and the People. New York: Viking, 1957.

Imaginary Lands. New York: Greenwillow Press, 1986.

"Jaguars." World Book Encyclopedia. 2001.

Krauthammer, Charles. "Why Lines Must be Drawn." Time. 23 August 2004, p.78.

"Meal Ticket: Best Pizza." Newsweek. 6 September 2004, p. 66.

Purnick, Joyce. "A Setback For the City of Tolerance." The New York Times. 6 September 2004.

Telford, Nancy. "Stem Cell Research in the U.S." Spring. 2002. <spring.parkinson.org.uk> (24 January 2002).

"World Leader in Bioethics." University of Pennsylvania School of Medicine. <www.bioethics.upenn.edu> (29 March 2004).



Write Traits 6-point Scale for Older Students

Ideas

- 6**
- My ideas are crystal clear—and you will not be bored.
 - I know this topic inside and out.
 - What's more, I will help you understand this topic.
 - My details are intriguing—not just things everyone already knows.
- 5**
- This paper is clear—it makes sense from beginning to end.
 - It is easy to tell what my main point is about.
 - I used research and/or my own experience to make my writing convincing.
 - I use important details to support or explain main ideas.
- 4**
- Most* of this paper is clear and focused—OK, there's a fuzzy moment here and there.
 - It's easy to tell what this paper is all about.
 - I have *some* great details! But then, I have some generalities, too. I need to dig deeper. I need more new, unusual details.
- 3**
- I know what I want to say—but it's hard to get my ideas on paper.
 - At least I stick to my topic—well, most of the time.
 - You can probably figure out my main idea or story.
 - Details? I have a few. I need a *lot* more information.
- 2**
- This is still confusing, even to me. It rambles.
 - I'm *beginning* to figure out what I want to say.
 - I *think* I have a main idea—but I'm not sure.
 - This is pretty sketchy. The truth is, I didn't say much.
- 1**
- There are just notes and thoughts. Well, it's a *start*.
 - What's this about? Hey—I'm not sure yet. I'm just jotting down ideas.
 - If you do find a main idea here, *please* tell me what it is!

Organization

- 6**
- This is so easy to follow, it's like having a road map.
 - The structure is strong, but it doesn't overwhelm you.
 - Super organization makes my ideas clear.
 - Notice my opening? My closing? Unforgettable, don't you think?
 - Everything* connects. You never wonder how I got from A to B.
- 5**
- This is pretty orderly. Nothing's out of place.
 - You can spot my structure if you're looking for it.
 - Main ideas stand out.
 - I have a strong lead and conclusion.
 - It's pretty easy to see how one thing connects to another.
- 4**
- The order works—I don't think you'll feel lost.
 - My structure is definitely there—just a little predictable.
 - I *have* a lead and conclusion—that's the main thing, right?
 - I connected most ideas together.
- 3**
- Some parts are *definitely* out of place or not needed.
 - It's sometimes hard to follow—you might have to re-read.
 - I tried for a good lead and conclusion, but I'm not sure if they work or not.
 - I did not always see how ideas connected, so it was hard to make that clear to readers. What really goes with what?
- 2**
- I need to re-organize! I seem to go in lots of directions.
 - I don't really understand how to connect ideas to each other—or to my main point.
 - My lead and conclusion need work! They're not exciting.
- 1**
- This is a jumble of details and random thoughts.
 - Nothing really goes with anything else.
 - There's no lead; it just begins. There's no conclusion, it just stops.

Voice

- 6**
- This is *me*. It's as individual as my fingerprints.
 - This paper *begs* to be read aloud—you'll want to share it.
 - I love this topic—and it shows in every line.
 - I don't over-write, but I use my voice to keep readers hooked.
 - You'll find this paper tough to put down.
- 5**
- I think my voice is lively, expressive and enthusiastic.
 - The tone and flavor are right for my topic, audience, and purpose.
 - I want my audience to like this topic and to tune in.
 - Would you read it *aloud*? I think so.
- 4**
- Spontaneous? Enthusiastic? Sure—now and then. Not *all* the time.
 - Tone and flavor acceptable for topic, audience, purpose.
 - My voice comes and goes. I get tired now and then, you know?
- 3**
- I have a sincere, *functional* voice. This is an OK topic and an OK paper.
 - My tone might not be *perfect*. Well, *nobody's* perfect.
 - I don't usually think about the audience—I just write.
- 2**
- Sometimes I sound like an encyclopedia—other times, I'm too chatty. I can't seem to hit the right note.
 - I think there could be a *moment* of voice here or there.
 - My audience? Well, who *are* they anyhow?
- 1**
- I can't think of a word to describe this voice.
 - Does this even *have* voice? It's kind of ho-hum.
 - I wouldn't read this myself if I didn't have to.
 - I don't care that much about the topic—and I don't really care if anyone reads this, either. I feel bored. I'm glad it's over! (Bet you are, too.)

Adapted from Pearson/Addison-Wesley Longman, 2001. Spandel *Creating Writers*. 3rd Edition. Used with permission. May be used by Write Traits trainers/teachers for noncommercial instructional purposes.

Write Traits 6-point Scale for Older Students, p. 2

Word Choice

- 6**
- You'll read this more than once; it's that good.
 - I made every single word count; if it didn't work, I cut it.
 - I'll read this a year from now and I'll still like it.
 - My verbs are strong—I don't count on adjectives.
 - Could you quote me? Well—I'd say *yes*.
- 5**
- My word choice is natural. I didn't need the thesaurus.
 - Every word is used correctly, making my meaning clear.
 - I tried to give the writing some sparkle with vivid verbs.
 - I did not settle for worn-out phrases; I found my own way to say it.
- 4**
- It works and it's clear. It makes sense.
 - I guess I did include some clichés or over-written phrases.
 - Verbs?* Well, yes, right in here with the adjectives and adverbs.
 - It isn't always original or striking, but it isn't confusing.
- 3**
- I did not always use words correctly. I may have confused my reader.
 - I had a good moment or two, though!
 - Verbs? Well, there's good old *is*, *are*, *was*, and *were*...
 - Some words are vague. Did I over-utilize my thesaurus?
- 2**
- This is confusing. What was I trying to say?
 - I should have looked up the words I didn't know.
 - Too many modifiers? Do you honestly, truly, really think so?
 - Sometimes I was showing off—other times I settled for routine words like *nice*, *fun*, *great*, and *wonderful*.
- 1**
- Help. I don't think anyone will understand this.
 - This does not make sense, even to me.
 - I used words I didn't know. I used other words over and over. I think I made up some of these words.
 - I need verbs. I need clarity. I need better word choice.

Sentence Fluency

- 6**
- This is easy to read with a LOT of inflection—like a good film script.
 - Almost every sentence begins differently.
 - My informational writing comes right to the point.
 - My creative writing is lyrical, poetic, and musical. It flows.
 - You need to read it aloud to really appreciate it.
- 5**
- My writing has an easy going flow, rhythm and cadence.
 - It's enjoyable to read—no practice needed.
 - My sentences are different lengths and begin in different ways. Variety is my middle name.
- 4**
- My sentences are easy to follow.
 - I wouldn't call my writing musical, but it's not awkward.
 - Yes, I have *some* variety in length and structure.
 - Yes, there's *some* repetition. Yes, some sentences begin the same way.
- 3**
- When I read this over, it sounds mechanical.
 - ALL my sentences seem to begin the same way. All of them are alike. All of them could use some work. All of them are putting me to sleep.
 - Where's the zip? It isn't as natural as conversation.
- 2**
- This is a little hard to read aloud—even though I wrote it!
 - I went on and on and on as if I could never stop and had to keep going. Or I wrote. In choppy. Phrases. Some weren't. Even sentences. This. Is boring.
- 1**
- This is very hard to read aloud.
 - Sometimes I have to go back and start over or I can't tell where sentences begin or end.
 - I have to fill in *lots* of missing words or missing punctuation. Sometimes I have to hook words together to make a sentence. I don't really know what a sentence is. Help!

Conventions

- 6**
- Only the pickiest editors will spot errors.
 - It's mostly correct (maybe not *flawless*, but come on).
 - I used a wide range of conventions (as I needed them)—semicolons, ellipses, dashes, italics, etc.
 - Notice the layout? Eye-catching, don't you think?
 - I'd say this is ready to publish.
- 5**
- I made some minor errors, but you may not have noticed.
 - I *did* proofread. I'm not a fanatic, but I'm careful.
 - I used good conventions to make my text easy to read.
 - I think the layout leads readers to main points.
 - Minor touch-ups will get this ready to publish.
- 4**
- I made some noticeable errors, but you get my meaning.
 - It's perfectly readable. No buddy's—uh, *nobody's*—perfect.
 - Layout? Hey, looks good to me.
 - Basics (e.g., periods, caps, simple spelling) are OK.
 - It needs a good once-over before publication.
- 3**
- A few errors may stop you just for a second.
 - I made some errors even on basics like periods and simple spelling. How did those slip by me?
 - I should think more about layout. It's kind of blah.
- 2**
- This has MANY errors. Maybe if I read it aloud...
 - Some errors get in the way of my meaning.
 - Even basics, like simple spelling, need work.
 - I think *every line* will need editing if I'm going to publish this. My layout needs work, too.
- 1**
- Only very patient readers will get through this.
 - I missed a LOT of errors. I still don't know what they all are. I need editing help—and help with layout.
 - My message is *buried* under mistakes.
 - I think I should go through this *word by word*.

Adapted from Pearson/Addison-Wesley Longman, 2001. Spandel Creating Writers. 3rd Edition. Used with permission. May be used by Write Traits trainers/teachers for noncommercial instructional purposes.

Literary Devices

Alliteration: repeated consonant sounds in a phrase or sentence

Seven slippery snakes slithered silently south.

Figurative language: a way of using language that expands the literal meaning of the words and gives them a new or more interesting twist

Metaphors, similes, puns, and idioms are example of figurative language.

Hyperbole: extreme exaggeration not to be taken literally used to increase the effect of a statement

It's raining cats and dogs.

I've asked you a million times to clean your room.

Imagery: details that appeal to the senses

Sweet, slow drops of deep purple juice drip from the corners of my mouth and flow in little blueberry rivers down to my chin.

Irony: a discrepancy between what is said and what is meant, or between what appears to be true and what is really true

It is ironic in a story when a happy-go-lucky, friendly clown turns out to be the saddest person in the world.

Metaphor: a comparison between two things that are not ordinarily alike

Life is a gift, waiting to be opened.

Onomatopoeia: use of a word that makes the same sound as its meaning, or a word that sounds like the same sound that an object actually makes

The fire crackles and spits, pops, and hisses.

Parody: a work that makes fun of another work by imitating some aspect of the other writer's style

"Saturday Night Live" is a popular TV show that parodies situations, political figures, and others.

Personification: giving human characteristics to a nonliving object

The river sings a lazy, bubbling tune to me.

Satire: writing that makes fun of the shortcomings of people, systems, or institutions for the purpose of enlightening readers and/or bringing about a change.

Satire can range from light fun-making to harsh, bitter mockery.

Simile: a comparison between two unlike things, using the word like or as to connect the two.

July moves as slowly as a sleepy snail.

Math problems are like hot, boring days that never end.

Theme: the main meaning or idea of a piece of writing.

It includes the topic and a viewpoint or opinion about the topic.

Parts of Speech

Noun – A word that is the name of something: a person, place, thing, or idea.

- **Proper Noun:** the name of a specific person, place, thing, or idea. Proper nouns are always capitalized: Grand Ole Opry, Corvette, Friday, April.
- **Common Noun:** any noun that does not name a specific person, place, thing, or idea. Common nouns are not capitalized: child, country, rainbow, summer, gift, weather.
- **Concrete Noun:** names a thing that is tangible or physical (can be touched or seen). Concrete nouns are either proper or common: Chevrolet, White House, car, drums, book, author.
- **Abstract Noun:** names something you can think about but which you cannot see or touch. Abstract nouns are either proper or common: Christianity, satisfaction, poverty, illness, love, courage.
- **Collective Noun:** names a *collection* of persons, animals, places, or things:
 - Persons:** tribe, congregation, class, team
 - Animals:** flock, herd, gaggle, clutch, litter
 - Places:** United States, United Nations, Philippines
 - Things:** batch, cluster, bunch
- **The Number of Nouns**
 - Singular nouns name one person, place, thing, or idea: boy, stage, group.
 - Plural nouns names more than one person, place, thing, or idea: boys, stages, audiences.
 - Compound nouns are made up of two or more words: football, brother-in-law

Gender of Nouns

Nouns have **gender**; that is, they are grouped according to sex: *feminine, masculine, neuter*, and *indefinite*.

Types of Gender:

Feminine: mother, hostess, women, cow, hen

Masculine: uncle, brother, man, woman, rooster

Neuter: tree, cobweb, closet

Indefinite: president, duckling, doctor, lawyer, assistant, teacher

Use of Nouns

- **Subject Nouns:** A noun becomes the **subject** of a sentence when it does something or is being talked about:

The guidance *counselor* looked the eighth-grade student in the eye and advised, “The high-school *principal* won’t allow you to take more than one study hall.”
- **Predicate Nouns** follow a form of the verb *to be* (*is, am, was, were, are, be, being, been*) and repeats or renames the subject: “A *study hall* is a good *place* to work on your assignments, but *two hours* of study hall is a *waste* of your valuable time.”

- **Possessive Nouns show possession or ownership:** The student’s face showed concern. “But I need an hour’s rest every day in order to do well in my classes.”
- **Object Nouns are used as direct objects, indirect objects, or the objects of prepositions:** “Don’t worry, you’ll enjoy high school with only one study hall.”

Pronoun – A word used in place of a noun.

- **Antecedent** – the noun that the pronoun refers to or replaces. All pronouns have antecedents. All pronouns must agree with their *antecedents* in number, person, and gender.
The *speaker* brought his glass to his lips.
Everyone must have his/her turn to try the obstacle course.
- **Personal pronouns** take the place of nouns in a sentence:
Simple: I, you, he, she, it, we, they
Compound: myself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, themselves
- **Number of a pronoun**
Singular: I, you, he, she, it, him, her
Plural: we, you, they, us, them
You, your, and yours (possessive) may be singular or plural
- **Person of a pronoun**
First person: used in place of the name of the speaker: *I* am speaking. *We* are speaking.
Second person: used to name the person or thing spoken to: Eliza, will *you* please listen. *You* dogs better stop growling and listen, too.
Third person: used to name the person or thing spoken about: And *he* better listen if *he* ever wants to use the car again.

Use of a pronoun

- **Subject Pronouns:** used as the subjects of a sentence (I, you, he, she, it, we, they):
I like myself when things go well.
They gave the wrong directions to the game.
It is also used after a form of the *be* verb (*am, is, are, was, were, been*) if it repeats the subject:
“It is *I*,” said the big brown bear.
- **Possessive Pronouns:** shows possession or ownership: my, mine, our, ours, his, her, hers, *their, theirs, its, your, yours*.
Please give me *my* book.
Alice and Tom gave *their* speech in front of the entire student body.
Note: You do not use an apostrophe with a personal pronoun to show possession.
- **Object Pronouns:** used as the object of a verb or preposition (me, you, him, her, it, us, them):
My toddler hugged *me* when I told *him* a story about *him*.
Jack threw *him* the ball.
We decided to give *them* another try at completing the project.

- **Other types of pronouns**

Reflexive Pronoun (myself, yourself, yourselves, himself/herself, ourselves, themselves) throws the action back upon the subject of a sentence:

The young skunk never washed *himself*.
Mary helped *herself* to some popcorn and soda.

Intensive Pronoun uses a reflexive pronoun to emphasize the noun or pronoun it refers to:

He *himself* smiled at it.
I *myself* was terrified during the movie.

Relative Pronoun (*who, whose, which, what, that, whoever, whatever, whichever*) is both a pronoun and a connecting word. It connects a subordinate clause to the main clause:

An actor, *who was hidden in the horse's stall*, did the talking.
The topic *that was unfamiliar to most of us* was very confusing.

Indefinite Pronoun (*All, another, any, anybody, anyone, anything, both, each, each one, either, everybody, everyone, everything, few, many, most, much, neither, nobody, none, no one, nothing one, other, several some, somebody, someone, something, such*) does not specifically name its antecedent (the noun or pronoun it replaces):

While we were fishing, *somebody* made me a jelly sandwich.
Does *anyone* know what time it is?

Interrogative Pronoun (*who, whose, whom, which, what*) asks a question:

"*Who* is here, and *what* do you want?" asked my friend from inside the door.
Which answer is the correct one?

Demonstrative Pronoun (*this, that, these, those*) points out or identifies a noun without naming the noun. When used together in a sentence, *this* and *that* distinguish one item from another, and *these* and *those* distinguish one group from another:

This was a wonderful experience; *that* was a nightmare.
Those cookies were stale and didn't taste good.

Verb – A word that expresses action or existence (state of being – “to be”).

Stevie Wonder *hosted* the show. (action)
They *were* present to honor Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (existence)

Adjective – A word used to describe a noun or pronoun.

Why did *ancient* dinosaurs become an *extinct* species?
Were they wiped out by a *catastrophic* flood or a *deadly* epidemic?

Adverb – A word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. An adverb tells *how, when, where, why, how often, and how much*.

Dad snores *loudly*. (*Loudly* modifies the verb *snores*.)
His snores are *really* explosive. (*Really* modifies the adjective *explosive*.)
Dad snores *very* loudly. (*Very* modifies the adverb *loudly*.)

Conjunction – A word that connects individual words or groups of words

- **Coordinate Conjunction** connects a word to a word, a phrase to a phrase, or a clause to a clause. The words, phrases, or clauses joined by a coordinate conjunction must be *equal* or of the *same type*:
A puffer rarely worries *about calories or about dieting*. (Equal phrases are connected by *or*.)
He simply *puts his lips on a snail and sucks out his next meal*. (The conjunction *and* connects the phrase *puts his lips on a snail* to the phrase *sucks out his next meal*.)
- **Correlative Conjunctions** (neither/nor, either/or) are conjunctions used in pairs:
Neither pickles *nor* sauerkraut should be put on a chocolate sundae.
- **Subordinate Conjunction** – connects two clauses that are *not* equally important. A subordinate conjunction connects a dependent clause to an independent clause in order to complete the meaning of the dependent clause:
A chocolate sundae tastes best *when* it is topped with chopped nuts. (The clause *when it is topped with chopped nuts* is dependent. It cannot stand-alone.)

Preposition – A word (or group of words) that shows how two words or ideas are related to each other. A preposition shows the relationship between its object (a noun or pronoun that follows the preposition) and some other word in the sentence:

aboard	at	despite	in regard to	opposite	throughout
about	away from	down	in spite of	out	till
above	back of	down from	inside	out of	to
according to	because of	during	inside of	outside	together with
across	before	except	instead of	outside of	toward
across from	behind	except for	into	over	under
after	below	excepting	like	over to	underneath
against	beneath	for	near	owing to	until
along	beside	from	near to	past	unto
alongside	besides	from among	notwithstanding	prior	up
alongside of	between	from between	of	regarding	up to
along with	beyond	from under	off	round	upon
amid	but	in	on	round about	with
among	by	in addition to	on account of	save	within
apart from	be means of	in behalf of	on behalf of	since	without
around	concerning	in front of	on top of	subsequent to	
aside from	considering	in place of	onto	through	

Interjection – A word or phrase used to express strong emotion or surprise.

Gee, do you really think so?

Oh, no! He actually did it!

Wow! Look how high he pole-vaulted!

Yes, I would love to have another helping of chicken.

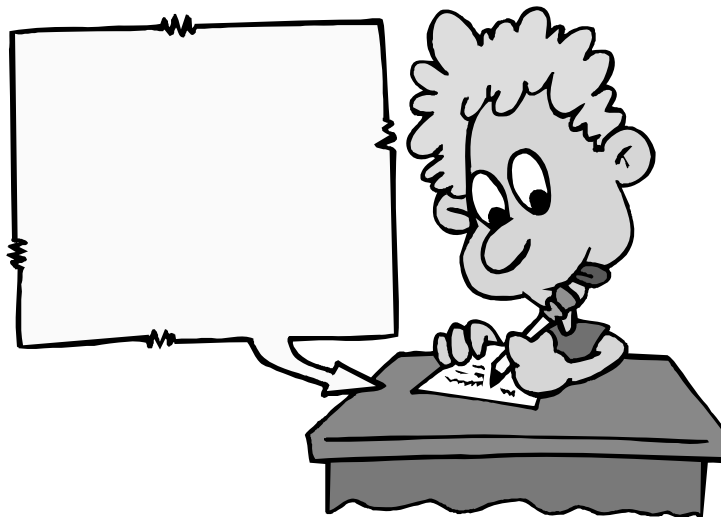
Glossary of Grammar Terms

- Abstract Noun** A noun that names things that do not have a physical substance.
Examples: *compassion, honesty, fear*
- Active Voice** A verb that expresses action and can take a direct object.
Example: *I threw the ball.*
- Adjective** A word that modifies a noun or pronoun.
Example: The *white* ball.
- Antecedent** The word, phrase, or clause to which a relative pronoun refers. A pronoun must agree in number with its antecedent.
Example: *Erin* gave me *her* ball.
- Articles** The adjectives *a, an,* and *the*
- Auxiliary Verb** A verb that accompanies another verb to show tense, mood, or voice
Example: She *has gone*.
- Clause** A group of words that contains a subject and a predicate, and forms part of a compound or complex sentence.
Example: *After I left,* she called.
- Collective Noun** A noun that denotes a collection of persons or things regarded as a unit and usually takes a singular verb.
Example: The *committee* chooses its own chairman.
- Common Noun** A noun that indicates any one of a class of persons, places, or things.
Examples: *boy; town; ball*
- Comparative Adjective** An adjective form (ending in *-er* or adding the word *more* before the adjective) used when two persons or things are compared.
Example: This apple is *smaller* and *more* delicious than that one.
- Complex Sentence** A sentence containing one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.
Example: *I went to town to shop but found that all the stores were closed.*
- Compound Sentence** A sentence containing two or more independent clauses joined by a conjunction.
Example: *I called my friend, and we talked for over an hour.*
- Compound-Complex Sentence** A sentence that contains two or more independent clauses and at least one independent or subordinate clause.
Example: *When she opened the door, no one was on the porch, and the street was empty, too.*
- Compound Subject** A subject of a sentence that has more than one noun in the subject of the sentence.
Example: *Mary and John came for dinner last night.*
- Concrete Noun** A noun that names a physical, visible, or tangible item.
Examples: *airplane; dog; water*

Conjunction	A word that connects word, phrases, or clauses. Examples: <i>and, but, or, nor, for, yet</i> Example: I like toast <i>and</i> jam, <i>but</i> I also like eggs <i>and</i> bacon.
Coordinating Conjunction	A conjunction used to connect two independent clauses. Example: He grinned, <i>and</i> I giggled.
Correlative Conjunction	Conjunctions that are used in pairs. Example: <i>Neither</i> Alan <i>nor</i> Amy will go.
Dependent (or Subordinate) Clause	A clause that does not express a completed thought and must always be attached to a main clause. Example: <i>When the weather cleared</i> , we continued the game.
Direct Object	The noun, pronoun, or noun phrase in a sentence that receives the action of a transitive verb. Example: I threw the <i>ball</i> .
Gerund	A verb form ending in “ing” and usually used as a noun. Example: <i>Skiing</i> is fun.
Indefinite Pronoun	A pronoun that does not specify the identity of its object. Example: <i>Anyone</i> can come.
Independent Clause	A clause that contains at least a subject and a predicate, and is capable of standing alone. Example: <i>I went to the store</i> .
Indirect Object	The noun, pronoun, or noun phrase named as the one to whom action involving a direct object is done. Example: He gave <i>me</i> the paper.
Infinitive	A verb form preceded by to, used as a noun, adjective, or adverb. Examples: He likes <i>to play</i> . <i>To disagree</i> is your privilege.
Interjection	An exclamatory word or phrase. Example: <i>Hey! Look out!</i>
Intransitive Verb	A verb that does not require an object. Example: She <i>learns</i> easily.
Linking Verb	A verb that can be followed by an adjective that modifies the subject. Example: Randy <i>is</i> tall.
Modify	To qualify or limit the meaning of. Example: <i>very small</i>
Noun	A word that names a person, place, thing, or idea. Example: <i>girl, city, hat, determination</i>
Passive Voice	A verb that expresses state of being and cannot take a direct object. Example: He <i>was asked</i> to leave.
Past Tense	A verb form that expresses action or condition that occurred in the past. Example: Yesterday I <i>went</i> to town.

Personal Pronoun	A pronoun that denotes the speaker, person spoken to, or person spoken about. Example: <i>You</i> can find it.
Possessive Pronoun	A pronoun that shows possession. Example: That car is <i>mine</i> .
Predicate	The portion of a sentence or clause that tells something about the subject, consisting of a verb and possibly including objects, modifiers, and/or verb complements. Example: John ordered dinner first.
Predicate Adjective	An adjective that refers to, describes, or limits the subject of a sentence. Example: The rock is <i>heavy</i> .
Predicate Nominative	A noun following a form of the verb to be in a sentence that modifies the subject. Example: She is <i>Alicia</i> .
Preposition	A word that shows relationship (often between verbs and nouns or nouns and nouns) and takes an object. Example: Put it <i>on</i> the table.
Prepositional Phrase	A group of words in a sentence that includes a preposition and its object, along with any modifiers of the object. Example: Put it <i>on the first table</i> .
Present Tense	A verb form that expresses current time. Example: I <i>am</i> here.
Pronoun	A word that takes the place of a noun. Example: I, you, he, she, it, we, they, me, him, her, us, them
Proper Noun	A noun that names a particular person, place, or thing, and is capitalized. Example: <i>Omaha, Jenny, Big Ben</i>
Reflexive Pronoun	A pronoun that ends in <i>-self</i> or <i>-selves</i> , used to point the action back to the subject. Example: You will hurt <i>yourself</i> .
Relative Pronoun	A pronoun that shows a relationship to another noun/pronoun in the sentence Example: It was he <i>who</i> did it.
Run-On Sentence	A sentence in which two complete sentences are run together with no punctuation to separate them. Example: <i>I went to the movie I ate some popcorn.</i>
Sentence	A basic unit of language that must contain a subject and a predicate. Example: <i>I went to the movie.</i>
Subject	A word or phrase in a sentence that is the doer of the action, or receives the action (in passive voice), or which is described; it must agree in number with the predicate. Example: <i>Margaret</i> was there. (<i>Margaret</i> is the subject.)

- Superlative Adjective** An adjective form (ending in *-est* or adding the word *most* before the adjective) used when three or more things are involved in a comparison.
Example: This is the *slowest* and *most loved* of all the cars.
- Tense** The form a verb takes in a particular setting or use.
Example: The present tense is *scream*; the past tense is *screamed*.
- Transitive** A verb that can take an object within a sentence.
Example: He *threw* the ball.
- Verb** A word that shows action, state of being, or occurrence.
Examples: *run, is, find*



Grammar and Usage

Apostrophes

To show possession:

- To form possessive of a singular noun, add an apostrophe and an *s*.
Lori's room dog's life Mr. Keen's class
- To form the possessive of a plural noun ending in *s*, add only the apostrophe.
The kittens' toys the trees' branches my sisters' hats
- To form the possessive of plural nouns not ending in *s*, add an apostrophe and an *s*.
The Women's Club children's shoes

In contractions and plurals:

- Use an apostrophe to show where letters have been left out in a contraction.
There's plenty of room. Aren't you going? He's away.
it's = it is who's = who is
its = possessive whose = possessive
- Use an apostrophe and *s* to form the plurals of letters, numbers, signs, and words referred to as words. The letter, number, sign or word is italicized, but the apostrophe and "s" ('s) are not.
Your *e*'s look like *a*'s on your papers.
Do not use & 's for *and*'s on your papers.
Are these *6*'s or *8*'s?
- Use an apostrophe with the contraction o'clock (of the clock) and before the last two digits of a year. Example: I was born in '40 (the year 1940).
- Use an apostrophe with expressions of time, space, and amount. Example: He bought a dollar's worth of ice cream.
- In writing conversation, use apostrophes to show letters omitted in colloquial or careless speech.
He prob'ly will be playin' football.
- Do not confuse the contractions (it's, who's, they're, you're) with the possessive pronouns (its, whose, their, your).
Whose book is that? *Who's* up there? *It's* funny how the cat licks *its* paws.
You're going to lose *your* books if *you're* not careful.

Plurals

- Form the plurals of most nouns by adding *s* to the singular (girl/girls; toy/toys).
- Form the plurals of nouns ending in *s*, *ss*, *sh*, *ch*, or *x* by adding *es* to the singular (box/boxes, class/classes, church/churches, fox/foxes, dish/dishes).
- Plurals of common nouns ending in *y* – preceded by a consonant – are formed by changing the *y* to *i* and adding *es* (try/tries, cry/cries).
- Plurals of nouns that end in *y* – preceded by a vowel – are formed by adding only an *s* (key/keys, valley/valleys).
- Plurals of nouns that end in *f* or *fe* are formed in one of two ways:
If the final *f* sound is still heard in the plural form of the word, simply add *s* (roof/roofs).
If the final sound is a *v* sound, change the *f* to *ve* and add *s* (wife/wives, hoof, hooves).

- Some words form a plural by taking on *irregular* spellings (child/children, goose/geese, mouse/mice).
- Form the plurals of all proper nouns ending in *y* by adding *s* (We have three Kathys in our class.).
- Plurals of symbols, letters, figures, and words discussed as words are formed by adding 's (*A's*, *Ph.D.'s*).
- Words ending in *o*:
 - With a vowel just before the *o*, add *s* (radio/radios, rodeo/rodeos)
 - With a consonant letter just before the *o*, add *es* (echo/echoes, tomato/tomatoes)
 - Exception: Musical terms always form plurals by adding *s* (alto/altos, banjo/banjos).
- Compound nouns usually form the plural by adding *s* or *es* to the important word in the compound (Examples: brothers-in-law, maids of honor).

Capitalization

Capitalize

- The first word in a sentence: *Did you enjoy the show?*
- The first word in a direct quotation: *John said, "Let's go!"*
- The first word in a line of poetry: *Swift things are beautiful:*
- The first word in each part of an outline
- The pronoun *I*: *Jeff and I are twins.*
- The first word and all important words in titles: *Gone With the Wind, Reader's Digest*
- All proper nouns – special names of people, places, animals, things, or groups of people.
- Title used before a name or in place of a name, including family titles: *Senator Smith, Mother*
- Initials and many abbreviations: *B.C., A.D., A. W. Smith*
- The names of days, months, and holidays, but **not** seasons: *Monday, March, Christmas, spring*
- Historical documents, events, and periods: *Constitution, Civil War, Middle Ages*
- All words, including pronouns, which refer to God, the Holy Family, or Scripture.
- Directions **only** when they are referred to as regions: *The North beat the South in the Civil War.*
- The first word in the greeting and closing of a letter
- Proper adjectives

Do not capitalize

- Seasons: *spring, summer, autumn, winter*
- Directions: *east, west, north, southeast*
- Names of school subjects: *math, science* – unless they are languages or numbered course titles – *English, Math 201*

Commas

- Use commas between words, phrases, or clauses in a series. (A series contains at least three items.)
Use one less comma than the number of items in a series. (Mary bought apples, peaches, and bananas.)
- Use a comma to separate two independent clauses in a compound sentence when they are joined by *and*, *but*, *or*, or *nor*. (Mary was not going to participate, *but* she changed her mind at the last minute.)

- Use commas to set off interrupters when they disrupt the flow of the sentence. (Please tell us when you plan to be in town and, *if possible*, where you will be staying.)
- Use commas to separate two or more adjectives that equally modify the same noun. (He was a tall, handsome man.)
- Commas are used to distinguish items in an address and items in a date. (In June our family is moving to 2727 Telluride Avenue, Denver, Colorado 81435, for a year. In August 1989 my father designed a totally computerized house. July 4, 1995, will be our first day in the new house.)
Note: Do not use a comma to separate the state from the ZIP code. Also, if only the month and year are written, no comma is needed to separate the two. (December 2003 was a mild month.)
- A comma is used to separate an interjection (mild or strong) from the rest of the sentence.
No, I won't be able to attend the meeting.
- Commas are used to separate a noun of direct address from the rest of the sentence. (A noun of direct address is the noun that names the person spoken to in the sentence.)
Jill, listen to this.
That's nothing, **Jack**.
Please, **Mary**, don't call me names.
- Commas are used to set off a word, phrase, or clause that interrupts the main thought of a sentence. Such expressions usually can be identified through the following tests:
 1. They may be omitted without changing the substance *or* meaning of a sentence.
 2. They may be placed nearly anywhere in the sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Computers will definitely become smaller. You can, *for example*, already buy a laptop model that will fit in a standard pocket folder.
- Commas are used to set off the *exact* words of the speaker from the rest of the sentence.
The technician said, "Did you know that computers can now speak with a Texas drawl?"
Note: When reporting rather than quoting what someone said, use no commas (or quotation marks) as in this example: The technician said that computers can now speak with a Texas drawl.
- Commas are used to set off appositives (extra information about the noun that comes before it).
Mary, *my best friend from college*, is coming to visit.

Colons (:)

- Use a colon before a list of items, especially after such expressions as *as follows* and *the following*.
The following people have been selected for the band: Tom McKinney, Lisa Fairbanks, Rollo Washington, and Mary Lou Hawks.
Every student must have these items: a pen, a pencil, notebook paper, and an eraser.
- Never use a colon immediately after a verb or preposition:
INCORRECT: This recipe requires: eggs, flour, baking soda, and yeast.
CORRECT: This recipe requires eggs, flour, baking soda, and yeast.
INCORRECT: Send thank-you notes to: Aunt Rose, Uncle George, and Grandmother.
CORRECT: Send thank-you notes to Aunt Rose, Uncle George, and Grandmother.
- Use a colon between the hour and the minute when you write the time.
3:00 A.M. at 10:00 on Saturday morning

- Use a colon after the salutation of a business letter.

Dear Mr. Larimore:
Gentlemen:

Dear Ms. Winston:
To Whom It May Concern:

Semicolons (;)

- Use a semicolon between parts of a compound sentence if they are not joined by and, but, nor, for, or yet. (Jet Cleaners just delivered your coat; it's in the hall. There's a good movie on tonight; let's watch it!)
- Use a semicolon only when the two parts of the compound sentence are closely related. Sometimes it is better to separate the compound sentence into two sentences:

ACCEPTABLE: A meeting will be held next Thursday; the topic for discussion will be the new bleachers.

BETTER: A meeting will be held next Thursday. The topic for discussion will be the new bleachers.

Dashes

- Indicate a strong or sudden break in thought or structure. (I was just leaving – why are you here?)
- Emphasize some part of the sentence – to mean *namely, in other words, that is*, and other expressions that precede explanations. (Use them sparingly.)
The wedding was perfect – beautiful, well organized, and sentimental.

Hyphens

- Form compound words (commander-in-chief, three-time-loser)
- Join a letter to a word (A-minus, L-shaped)
- Create a two-word adjective that is a single idea (first-run movie, four-speed transmission)
- Express word fractions (four-fifths, one-half)
- Form compound numbers between 20-100 (twenty-one, forty-three, seventy-eight)
- Always go after the following prefixes:
 - ex:** ex-marine, ex-wife
 - all:** all-American, all-star
 - self:** self-confident, self-help
- Are used to divide words at the end of the line.
 - o Hyphens go between double consonants.
Example: We usually walk home from school on sun-ny days, and Dad picks us up when it rains.
 - o Words must be divided so that each syllable can be pronounced as it is pronounced in a complete word.
Example: Next week in science class, we will learn about *mole-cules*. (not *mo-lecules*)
 - o The hyphen always goes at the **end** of the line, never at the beginning.
 - o A hyphen is never used in the following:
 - One-syllable words
 - After one letter
 - Proper nouns

Parentheses

- Enclose material that is supplementary, explanatory, or interpretive in a sentence or at the end of a sentence.
Her mother (a pediatrician) loves the works of Shakespeare.
I turned off the alarm and went back to sleep. (That was my first mistake.)
- Enclose a question mark after a date or statement to show doubt. (It was May 18 (?) when we visited the Grand Canyon.)
- Enclose an author’s insertion or comment.

Ellipsis (Three periods; when typing, leave one space before, after, and between each period.)

- To show a pause.
“Well, Jill and I . . . ah . . . yeah, were in another galaxy. Well, I . . . ah . . . mean we were watching *2002: A Space Odyssey* on Jill’s new 3-D TV.”
- To show omitted words from a quotation.
- To show omitted words at the end of a sentence; a period is used followed by three dots.
“The game would start with a terrific stereo sound track. . . . Then you would blast off, with realistic animated sequences, in full color, on screen, as if you were looking out the window of a spaceship.”

Quotation Marks

- Quotation marks surround the exact words of a speaker or writer.
- Periods and commas are always placed inside quotation marks.
“I don’t know,” said Albert.
Albert said, “I don’t know.”
“Don’t forget,” my mother said, “to wipe your feet.”
- An exclamation point or a question mark is placed *inside* the quotation marks when it punctuates the quotation; it is placed *outside* when it punctuates the main sentence.
John said, “Mom, will you zap me a cheeseburger?”
Did Ms. Wiley really say, “You can tour an art museum on a computer”?
- Semicolons or colons are placed *outside* quotation marks.
First, I will read “The Masque of the Red Death”; then I will read “The Raven.”
- Quote within a quote: Single quotation marks are used to punctuate a quotation within a quotation.
“I loved reading Poe’s ‘The Raven!’” exclaimed Jonathan.
- Quotation marks surround titles (see **Italics/Underlining**).
- Long quotations:

If more than one paragraph is quoted (as in a report or research paper), quotation marks are placed before each paragraph and at the end of the last paragraph.

“ _____

_____.”

“ _____

_____.”

Quotations which are more than four lines on a page are usually set off from the rest of the paragraph by indenting 10 spaces (1 inch) from the left margin and maintaining *double* spacing. No quotation marks are placed either before or after the quoted material unless they appear in the original copy.

Agreement

- Make sure **subjects** agree with **verbs**:

Incorrect:

Don't Jerry work?
 Joe were the best one.
 Her and I are hungry.

Correct:

Doesn't Jerry work?
 Joe was the best one.
 She and I are hungry.

- Make sure **pronouns/nouns** agree with **antecedents** (See indefinite pronouns):

Incorrect:

Everyone read *their* books.
Each of the boys read *their* book.
All of them read *his* books.

Correct:

Everyone read *his* or *her* book.
Each of the boys read *his* book.
All of them read *their* books.

Italics/Underlining

- Material that is italicized in print or by computer is underlined in type-written or hand-written work.
- Italicize foreign words not yet accepted as part of our language. (Do this *tout de suite*.)
- Italicize figures, letters, signs, and words referred to as words. (How many *t*'s are there in your brother's name?)
- Italicize words used emphatically, but it should not be overdone. (You *never* agree with me.)
- Italicize titles of books, long plays, long poems, periodicals, newspapers, magazines; titles of long musical works and motion pictures; titles of ships, aircraft, and trains.

Italicize (or underline if handwritten)

books
 pamphlets
 movies
 paintings
 operas
 newspapers
 magazines/periodicals
 plays
 statues
 long poems
 ballets
 TV programs

Use quotations marks

short stories
 short poems
 songs
 articles
 essays
 chapter titles
 TV episodes

We read *The Giver*.

The Backstreet Boys sing "I Want It That Way."

Misused Words and Phrases

Incorrect:

alot
alright
cause of
different than
irregardless
is when, was when
like
should of, would of, could of
suppose to
use to

Correct:

a lot
all right
because
different from
regardless
is, was
as if, for example
should have, would have, could have
supposed to
used to

Spelling Rules When Adding Suffixes

Words with consonant endings

- When a one-syllable word (bat) ends in a consonant (t) preceded by one vowel that is usually short (*a*), double the final consonant before adding a suffix that begins with a vowel (*batting*).
- When a multi-syllable word (control) ends in a consonant (l), is accented on the second syllable, and the suffix begins with a vowel (*ing*) – the same rule holds true: double the final consonant (*controlling*).

Words with a silent e

- Drop the final e before adding a suffix that begins with a vowel (come/coming).
- Do not drop the e when the suffix begins with a consonant (use/useful).

Words ending in y

- When y is the last letter in a word and the y is preceded by a consonant, change the y to *i* before adding any suffix, except those beginning with *i* (fry – fries – frying, beauty – beautiful, happy–happiness, cry–cried).

The IE Rule:

- Write *i* before *e* except after *c*, or when sounded like *ā* as in neighbor and weigh.



Commonly Confused Words (Including Homonyms)

affect - verb, *to influence*
effect - noun, *result or consequence*
effect - verb, *to make, to produce*

You can *affect* the outcome.
What *effect* will this failing grade have on me?
George *effected* a change.

accept – *to take or receive*
except - *but*

He *accepted* the trophy.
Everyone *except* Ann was present.

are – *plural present tense of “to be”*
our - *denotes possession*
hour - *sixty minutes*

We *are* on the right track.
It is *our* right.
We need to be there in an *hour*.

allowed – *permitted*
aloud – *in a normal tone*

We weren't *allowed* to watch T.V.
She read the book *aloud* to herself.

already – *previously*
all ready – *all are ready*

I had *already* seen the movie twice.
Give the signal when you are *all ready*.

altogether – *entirely*
all together – *everyone in the same place*

He doesn't *altogether* approve of me.
We were *all together* at Christmas.

can – *able to*
may – *permitted to; possibility*

He *can* run the mile in 5 minutes flat.
May I go to the library? It *may* rain tomorrow.

capital – *city*
as an adjective, *punishable by death*
or *of major importance*
capitol – *building*

Washington is the *capital* of this country.
Murder is a *capital* offense.
That is a *capital* idea.
The *capitol* faces a park.

cloths – *pieces of cloth*
clothes – *wearing apparel*

Try the new cleaning *cloths*.
Her *clothes* are expensive.

chose – *past tense of choose*
choose – *decide*

Last night I *chose* to eat spaghetti.
Tonight I will *choose* a steak for dinner.

coarse – *rough, crude*

He wore a suit of *coarse* cloth and used *coarse* language.

course – *path of action;*
part of a meal;
a series of studies

He followed a straight *course* on the golf *course*.
Soup was the first *course*.
I am taking a *course* in cooking.

desert – *a dry region*
desert – *to leave*
dessert – *the final course of a meal*

We flew across the *desert*.
He *deserted* his family.
The *dessert* was ice cream.

fewer than - *a smaller number*
less than - *a smaller degree*

Fewer than sixty people came to Bingo night.
She weighed *less than* a feather.

Commonly Confused Words (con't.)

farther – used when writing about distance

further – additional; (doesn't refer to distances)

Alaska is *farther* north than Iceland.

Further information can be found at the library.

good – an adjective that describes a noun

well – nearly always an adverb; describes health

The apple pie looked so *good*.

He slept *well* even though he did not feel *well*.

its - denotes possession

it's - contraction of it is or it has

The kitten raised *its* head.

It's the wrong time.

know – well informed

no - opposite of yes

now - at the present time

He *knows* me better than I know myself.

No, you can't go.

We need to finish this *now*.

lay – to place or put

lie – to recline or rest

Lay the packages on the table.

The dog is not allowed to *lie* on the sofa.

loose – free or untied

lose – to misplace or fail

loss – something lost

Johnny had a *loose* tooth.

The team didn't want to *lose* the game.

It was no big *loss* when Jack quit the team.

miner – worker in a mine

minor – under legal age;
less important

A *miner's* job is sometimes dangerous.

A *minor* cannot vote.

He raised only *minor* objections.

past – can be a noun, adjective, or preposition

passed – is always a verb (past tense of "pass")

I won't forget the *past* (n.). My *past* (adj.) life is unknown.

He drove *past* (prep.) the house.

Leo *passed* the history exam.

plain – not fancy;

flat area of land;

clear

plane – a flat surface;

an airplane

She lives in a very *plain* home.

We crossed the *plains* in two days.

Our problem is *plain*.

Plane geometry is a study of imaginary flat surfaces.

A *plane* circled the airport.

principal – head of a school;

the main one of several things

principle – rule of conduct;

main fact or law

He went to the *principal's* office.

The *principal* cause of accidents is carelessness.

The judge accused the criminal of having no *principles*.

He understands the *principles* of mathematics.

quiet – opposite of noise

quit – to stop

quite – completely or entirely

The house was *quiet* without the children home.

Sam *quit* his job to start a new career.

He was *quite* tired after getting no sleep.

right - opposite of left

right - opposite of wrong, correct

right - exactly

write - compose

Turn *right* at the corner.

That is the *right* answer.

Drive *right* to school without stopping.

It's easy to *write* an essay.

Commonly Confused Words (con't.)

sight – the act of seeing

cite – to quote or refer to

site – location or position

than – used in a comparison

then – tells when

there - denotes place

their - denotes possession

they're - contraction of "they are"

to – preposition, towards

too - also, excess

two – number

waist – your middle

waste – unused material;
to squander

we're - contraction of "we are"

were - plural past tense of "to be"

where - denotes location

who – used as the subject in a sentence

whom – used as the object of a preposition or
as the direct object.

who – is used to refer to people

which – refers to nonliving objects or to animals

that – may refer to animals or nonliving objects

who's – contraction for "who is"

whose – possessive pronoun showing ownership

woman – singular

women – plural

your - denotes possession

you're - contraction of you are

Mark's *sight* was destroyed in a fire.

You must *cite* your resources in a research paper.

The building *site* was condemned due to garbage.

Sam is bigger *than* his little brother.

First he laughed, and *then* he cried.

Don't take him *there*.

It was *their* home.

They're almost ready.

Go *to* the store and buy seven thousand pens.

Can I go *too*? He is *too* thin.

He has one dog and *two* cats.

She wore a wide belt around her *waist*.

Please empty the *wastebaskets*.

Don't *waste* your time.

We're leaving now.

We *were* hungry, so we ate early.

Where are your textbooks?

Who is going to the dance?

He is dancing with *whom*?

Whom do you think?

Who is coming to dinner with us?

Our classes, which are very difficult, are also fun.

Loan me a pen *that* works.

Who's that boy with the red ears?

Whose ears are you talking about?

I spoke with the *woman*.

Three *women* called.

It's *your* car.

You're doing very well.



Irregular Verbs

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle (use with "have")
am, be	was, were	been
begin	began	begun
bid (offer)	bid	bid
bid (order)	bade	bidden
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
burst	burst	burst
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
creep	crept	crept
dive	dived	dived
do	did	done
drag	dragged	dragged
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
flee	fled	fled
flow	flowed	flowed
fly	flew	flown
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got <i>or</i> gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hang (execute)	hanged	hanged
hang (dangle)	hung	hung
hide	hid	hidden
know	knew	known
lay (place)	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lend	lent	lent
lie (recline)	lay	lain
lie (deceive)	lied	lied
raise	raised	raised
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung

rise
run
say
see
set
shake
shine (light)
shine (polish)
shrink
sing
sink
sit
slay
speak
spring
steal
strive
swear
swim
swing
take
tear
throw
wake
wear
weave
wring
write

rose
ran
said
saw
set
shook
shone
shined
shrank
sang
sank
sat
slew
spoke
sprang
stole
strove
swore
swam
swung
took
tore
threw
woke
wore
wove
wring
wrote

risen
run
said
seen
set
shaken
shone
shined
shrunk
sung
sunk
sat
slain
spoken
sprung
stolen
striven
sworn
swum
swung
taken
torn
thrown
waked
worn
woven
wring
written

