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ім. А.С. Макаренка

М.М. ДУДЧЕНКО

ПИШІТЬ І ГОВОРІТЬ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЮ МОВОЮ КРАЩЕ

(англійською мовою)

Навчальний посібник для студентів філологів вищих навчальних закладів

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Рецензенти: **Павлов В.В.** кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри практики англійської мови Сумського державного педагогічного університету імені А.С. Макаренка;
Коваленко А.М. кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри германської філології Сумського державного педагогічного університету імені А.С. Макаренка

Дудченко М.М.
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Навчальний посібник призначений для розвитку умінь писемної англійської мови. Розглядаються такі важливі аспекти письма як правопис слів, правила перенесення слів у кінці рядка, правила ефективного бізнес-листування, морфологічні характеристики основних частин мови. Особлива увага у посібнику приділяється навчанню студентів правильного використання різних знаків пунктуації та письмового оформлення тексту, таких як крапка, кома, тире, дефіс, апостроф, знак запитання, знак оклику, абревіація та ін.

Посібник буде корисний для студентів вищих навчальних закладів, які вивчають англійську мову як спеціальність, а також для вчителів середніх шкіл і гімназій. Він сприятиме поглибленню знань і розширенню як мовної, так і комунікативної компетенції.

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FOREWORD

This WSEB guidebook is designed to assist students and teachers to effectively maintain and utilize the English language. The book begins with a review of the history of the English language and a review of the essentials of grammar and ends with the section of additional exercises which include practical writing tasks that extend and reinforce the teaching points on the practice of writing.

The guidebook focuses on the student's awareness on specific facts of language: spelling, punctuation, sentence combining, letter-writing, and vocabulary. To effectively write and speak a foreign language the non-English-speaking students must be exposed, as much as possible, to the language in their daily writing and speaking activities.

The guidebook includes many rules and recommendations directed at helping students and teachers in their general conceptual and oral language development, and specifically in their ability to write and speak English correctly with meaning.

The handbook provides a variety of exercises that develop students' proficiency with grammar, writing, spelling, punctuation, and vocabulary throughout the course of explaining rules as well as additional exercises.

The handbook provides students with the skills they need to use English correctly and effectively outside the classroom.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE LANGUAGE

English is one of the Indo-European languages, a group of languages apparently derived from a common source. Within this group of languages, many of the more familiar words are remarkably alike. The English word *mother,* for example, is *mater* in Latin (L), *meter* in Greek (Gk.), and *matar* in ancient Persian and in the Sanskrit (Skt.) of India. Words in different languages that apparently descend from a common parent language are called *cognates.* The large number of cognates and the many correspondences in sound and structure in most of the languages of Europe and some languages of Asia indicate that they are derived from the common language that linguists call Indo-European, which it is believed was spoken in parts of Europe about six thousand years ago. By the opening of the Christian era the speakers of this language had spread over most of Europe and as far east as India, and the original Indo-European had developed into eight or nine language families. Of these, the chief ones that influenced English were the Hellenic (Greek) group on the eastern Mediterranean, the Italic (Latin) on the central and western Mediterranean, and the Germanic in northwestern Europe. English is descended from the Germanic.

Over two thousand years ago the Hellenic, the Italic, and the Germanic branches of Indo-European each comprised a more or less unified language group. After the fall of the Roman Empire in the fifth century, the several Latin-speaking divisions developed independently into the modern Romance languages, chief of which are Italian, French, and Spanish. Long before the fall of Rome the Germanic group was breaking up into three families: (1) East Germanic, represented by the Goths, who were to play a large part in the history of the last century of the Roman Empire before losing themselves in its ruins; (2) North Germanic, or Old Norse (ON), from which modern Danish (Dan.), Swedish (Sw.), Norwegian (Norw.), and Icelandic (Icel.) derive; and (3) West Germanic, the direct ancestor of English, Dutch (Du.), and German (Ger.).

The English language may be said to have begun about the middle of the fifth century, when the West Germanic Angles, Saxons, and Jutes began the conquest of what is now England and either absorbed or drove out the

Celtic-speaking inhabitants. (Celtic – from which Scots Gaelic, Irish Gaelic, Welsh, and other languages later developed – is another member of the Indo-European family). The next six or seven hundred years are known as the Old English (OE) or Anglo-Saxon (AS) period of the English language. The fifty or sixty thousand words then in the language were chiefly Anglo-Saxon, with a small mixture of Old Norse words as a result of the Danish (Viking) conquests of England beginning in the eighth century. But the Old Norse words were so much like the Anglo-Saxon that they cannot always be distinguished.

The transitional period from Old English to Modern English – about 1100 to 1500 – is known as Middle English (ME). The Norman Conquest began in 1066. The Normans, or "Northmen," had settled in northern France during the Viking invasions and had adopted Old French (OF) in place of their native Old Norse. Then, crossing over to England by the thousands, they made French the language of the king's court in London and of the ruling classes – both French and English – throughout the land, while the masses continued to speak English. Only toward the end of the fifteenth century did English become once more the common language of all classes. But the language that emerged at that time had lost most of its Anglo-Saxon inflections and had taken on thousands of French words (derived originally from Latin). Nonetheless, it was still basically English, not French, in its structure. The marked and steady development of the English language was partly stabilized by printing, introduced in London in 1476 by William Caxton.

A striking feature of Modern English (that is, English since 1500) is its immense vocabulary. As already noted, Old English used some fifty or sixty thousand words, very largely native Anglo-Saxon; Middle English used perhaps a hundred thousand words, many taken through the French from Latin and others taken directly from Latin; and unabridged dictionaries today list over four times as many. To make up this tremendous word hoard, the English language has borrowed most heavily from Latin, but it has drawn some words from almost every known language. English writers of the sixteenth century were especially eager to interlace their works with words from Latin authors. And, as the English pushed out to colonize and to trade in many parts of the globe, they brought home new words as well as goods. Modern science and technology have drawn

heavily from the Greek. As a result of all this borrowing, English has become one of the richest and most cosmopolitan of languages.

In the process of enlarging its vocabulary the English language has lost most of the original Anglo-Saxon words. But those that are left make up the most familiar, most useful part of the vocabulary. Practically all simple verbs, articles, conjunctions, prepositions, and pronouns are native Anglo-Saxon; and so are many of familiar nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. Every speaker and writer uses these native words over and over, much more frequently than the borrowed words. Indeed, if every word is counted every time it is used, the percentage of native words runs very high – usually between 70 and 90 percent. Milton's percentage was 81, Tennyson's 88, Shakespeare's about 90, and that of the King James Bible about 94. English has been enriched by its extensive borrowings without losing its individuality. It is still fundamentally the *English* language.

In college dictionaries the origin of the word – also called its *derivation* or *etymology* – is shown in square brackets. For example, after *expel* might be this information: [< L *expellere* < *ex-* out + *pellere* to drive, thrust]. This means that *expel* is derived from (<) the Latin (L) word *expellere,* which is made up of *ex-,* meaning "out," and *pellere,* meaning "to drive or thrust." Breaking up a word, when possible, into *prefix – root – suffix* will often help to get at the basic meaning of a word.

prefix	***root***	***suffix***	
dependent	de-	+ pend	**-ent**
down	*to hang*	*one who*	
interruption	inter-+	rupt +	-ion
between	*to break*	*act of*	
preference	pre- +	fer +	-ence
before	*to carry*	*state of*	

WHAT IS ENGLISH TODAY?

Of the 3,000 or more tongues spoken today, about half a dozen predominate, having among their speakers two thirds of the world's population. English, as one of those influential and growing languages, is spoken in areas widely scattered over the globe.

At present, English is the most widely studied language in areas where it is not native. It is the chief foreign language taught in the schools of Latin America and European countries.

In addition, the use of English is widespread in international trade, international scholarship, and scientific researches. More than half of the world's scientific and technical journals, as well as newspapers, are printed in English. Three fourth of the world's mail is written in English, and English is the language of three fifth of the world's radio stations.

How many words are there in English? We cannot say. We can not say how many more will appear. No dictionary – however large – can ever pretend to be complete. All words in the language come into syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations with each other. Languages are made by the people for the people, and people must use language as their needs dictate. These needs are dictated by social, economic and scientific development.

In any dictionary of the English language some 80% of the entries are borrowed. The majority is likely to come from Latin, and of those more than half will come through French. A considerable number will derive directly from Greek. A substantial contribution will come from Scandinavian languages, and a small percentage from Portuguese, Italian, Spanish and Dutch. Borrowings are useful in enriching the vocabulary and making the language flexible and resourceful. Other most evident methods of forming new words are compounding (joining two or more words to make a new one), affixation (adding a prefix or suffix to a single word), shortening (both clipping and back formation), imitation of sounds, blending (telescoping two words into one), abbreviation. After entering the language there happen very often changes in words, such as degeneration and elevation, expansion and contraction of meanings, etc. So being an open system any language is constantly developing.

PARTS OF SPEECH

Words are traditionally grouped into eight classes or parts of speech: *verbs, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions,* and *interjections.* Verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs are called content or notional words. They make up more than 99 percent of all words listed in the dictionary of the English language. Although much smaller in number, pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions are also very important. We can't do without them in our speaking and writing. Prepositions and conjunctions (the so-called function or structure words) connect and relate other parts of speech. Beside these eight classes of words the learners of the English language should remember about some specific groups of words such as *articles, numerals, and particles*. Articles and particles can be lexically charged in the context, thus acquiring contextual meaning.

Of the eight main word classes, only three – prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections – do not change their form.

Carefully study the forms, meanings, and functions of each of the eight parts of speech listed on the following pages.

VERBS

The verb denotes an action and has such grammatical categories as **person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood.** According to their morphological structure verbs are divided into simple (speak, write), derived, i.e. having affixes (notify, captivate), compound, i.e. consisting of two stems (daydream) and composite, i.e. consisting of a verb and a postposition of adverbial origin (give up, go away).

A verb functions as the predicate of a sentence or as an essential part of the predicate:

The poet writes.
He has written a collection of poems.
He is now writing an Essay on Friendship.

The most frequently used verb-forming suffix is ***-ize****: terrorize, idolize, fantasize, characterize.*

Note: Verb forms classified as participles, gerunds, or infinitives (verbals) cannot function as the predicate of a sentence. They have their particular functions.

Participles have the function of modifiers.

The man *speaking* on the phone is my father.

The teacher gave us *written* instructions.

Gerunds have both nominal (can perform the function of subject, object and predicative) and verbal (has tense distinctions and can be modified by an adverb) properties.

His *writing* all night long disturbed his whole family [subject];

She burst out *crying* **bitterly**.

Infinitives in Modern English have also a double nature, nominal and verbal.

Herman wants *to write* [direct object].

The urge *to write* left him. [modifier]

Verbs may be of active or passive voice.

WHICH IS BETTER – ***PASSIVE*** **or** ***ACTIVE*****?**

Passive verbs certainly have their uses, for example:

- when the doer of the action is unknown, uncertain, or irrelevant: *If magnesium is exposed oxygen, it ignites immediately.*
- in many standard phrases or idioms: *The game was abandoned; not to be sneezed at; someone to be reckoned with.*
- when the focus is already on the object of the action: *Those gravestones seem to invite bad luck – last night they were desecrated once again by a vandal.*
- when it would add some variety to the prose, or improve the rhythm, or help to sharpen a joke, or produce some other useful stylistic effect.

In some sentences the doer-element is missing: there is no *by*-phrase, either explicit or unstated. Here are some examples.

A crisis was precipitated when the chairman walked out.

When food intake is reduced, the metabolism is regulated immediately.

In case of need you can convert such sentences to the active form by using different verbs – intransitive *arise* and *decline* instead of transitive verbs *precipitate* and *reduce*:

A crisis arose when the chairman resigned.
When food intake declines, the metabolism compensates immediately.

All too often writers resort to the passive for various dubious reasons:

- it supposedly sounds impressive: *Two oddities were noted and duly reported by our inspectors.* (less bureaucratic – *Our inspectors noted and duly reported two oddities*).
- it supposedly sounds more courteous or dignified: *Your cooperation is greatly appreciated. The inconveniences are greatly regretted*. (more formal and impersonal than *We greatly appreciate your cooperation. We deeply regret the inconveniences*).
- it supposedly sounds less forward, since it can avoid personal pronouns such as *I, we, you*: *Steps should be taken to minimize the losses*. There is some sense in such passives when you think your readers are touchy when it comes to receiving advice: *You should take steps to minimize the losses*).
- it relieves the writer of personal responsibility: *It is recommended that..., it is of vital importance that..., it is urgent that...*
- it supposedly conveys a tone of scientific objectivity: *Some signs of subsidence were observed...* (it's pseudo-scientific, and not very impressive. Compare with the active form: *The researchers observed some signs of subsidence*).

On the whole, try to use the active voice rather than the passive. It not only engages the reader's attention more firmly; it also makes things easier for the reader to understand. Compare the piece of ponderous prose that relies heavily on the passive voice with that of active (imperative):

Passive:

Care should be taken when submitting manuscripts to book publishers. A suitable publisher should be chosen, by a study of his list of publications or an examination in the bookshops of the types of books in which he specialises. It is a waste of time and money to send the typescript of a novel to a publisher who

publishes no fiction, or poetry to one who publishes no verse, though all too often this is done. A preliminary letter is appreciated by most publishers, and this should outline the nature and extent of the typescript and enquire whether the publisher would be prepared to read it. It is desirable to enclose the cost of return postage when submitting the typescript and finally it must be understood that although every reasonable care is taken of material in the Publishers' possession, responsibility cannot be accepted for any loss or damage thereto.

Active (imperative):

Take care when submitting manuscripts to book publishers. First choose a suitable publisher – make sure that he is suitable by studying his list of publications or examining in the bookshops the types of books he specialises in. It is a waste of time and money sending the typescript of a novel to a publisher who publishes no fiction, or poetry to one who publishes no verse (though writers all too often do just that!). Most publishers appreciate a preliminary letter. It is a good idea to send one: use it to explain briefly what the typescript is about and how long it is, and to ask whether the publisher is prepared to read it. Enclose a s.a.e. or stamps with your typescript to ensure its safe return. But bear in mind that the publisher cannot accept responsibility for any loss of or damage to the typescript, even though he should take every reasonable care of it while it is in his possession.

COMMON IRREGULAR VERBS

The verbs below are the ones most commonly used in English. Most are found in the texts and exercises in this book.

Simple Form	Past Tense	Participle
be	was, were	been
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bet	bet	bet
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
buy	bought	bought

catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
light	lit	lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit
read	read	read
ride	rode	ridden

ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
show	showed	shown
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
speak	spoke	spoken
spend	spent	spent
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
understand	understood	understood
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
write	wrote	written

NOUNS

The noun is a word expressing substance. The noun answers the questions Who? and What?

Who are you?	**What** are you?
Who are you? Who is he/she?	What are you?
	What are they?
	What is he/she?
I ***am*** your aunt.	I'm a student.
He my brother/sister.	She is a scientist.
She ***is*** (John, Mary, Irina)	My mother is a musician.
It Mr. and Mrs. Green.	They are workers.
We Mr. and Mrs. Brown.	They are businessmen.
You ***are*** Mark and Mario.	We are teachers.
They	

USE SOME OTHER NOUNS.

Uncle, friend, boy-friend, girl-friend, father, mother, cousin, sister-in-law. daughter-in-law. mother/father-in-law etc.

Doctor, farmer, writer, painter, driver, singer, artist, actor, actress, movie star, manager, economist, dealer, broker, typist, publisher, banker, sports man. shop girl, employer, employee.

-Is this your father? -No. he isn't. -Who is he? -He is my uncle.	-Are they sportsmen? -No. they aren't. -What are they? -They are travelers.
Who is the tall girl next to Barbara? She is my cousin Mary.	-What is your father? -He is a teacher.

The concept of substance includes not only names of living beings (e.g. *boy, girl, bird*) and lifeless things (e.g. *desk, chair, case, book*), but also names of abstract notions (*strength, conversation, fight, fear, pity, sleep*).

Nouns function as subjects, objects, complements, appositives, and modifiers, as well as in direct address and in absolute constructions.

Nouns name persons, places, things, ideas, animals, and so on.

Marilyn drives a truck for the Salvation Army.

Endings such as *-ation, -ism, -ity, -ment,* and *-ness* are called noun-forming suffixes:

relax, starve (verbs) – *relaxation, starvation* (nouns)

kind, happy (adjectives) – *kindness, happiness* (nouns)

Words such as *father-in-law, Salvation Army, swimming pool, dropout, breakthrough,* etc. are generally classified as compound nouns.

The noun has the category of number. It may be singular or plural.

THE PLURAL OF NOUNS

(1) As a rule nouns form the plural with the help of the ending *-s* or *-es,* added to the singular, which is pronounced as /*s*/, /*z*/ or /*iz*/

two boys	many nations	a few scientists
several safes	three cupfuls	all the radios

both sisters-in-law [chief word pluralized],

the Dudleys and the Berrys [proper names]

Note that names of days, months, family names take only –*s*:

Kennedys, Obamas, Mondays, Julys, etc.

/s/	/z/	/iz/
book – books	car – cars	bus – buses
shop – shops	school – schools	class – classes
student – students	store – stores	church – churches
bank – banks	window – windows	garage – garages
airport – airports	island – islands	exercise – exercises
hat – hats	bed – beds	office – offices
cat – cats	ladder – ladders	glass – glasses
skirt – skirts	coin – coins	dress – dresses
sock – socks	picture – pictures	blouse – blouses
coat – coats	head – heads	page – pages
rock – rocks	umbrella – umbrellas	watch – watches

Note: To form the plural of some nouns ending in *f* or *fe,* change the ending to *ve* before adding the *s: a thief, two thieves; one life, our lives. (See also additional exercise 39).*

(2) Add *es* to singular nouns ending in *ss*, *s, ch, sh,* or *x.*

many losses these mailboxes the Rogerses
two approaches a lot of ashes two Dorises
[Note that each plural above makes an extra syllable.]

(3) Add *es* to singular nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, after changing the *y* to *i*:

eighty – eighties, strawberry – strawberries,
company – companies, industry – industries

(4) Remember the nouns which have irregular plurals that are not formed by adding s or *es.*

man – men woman – women child – children foot – feet goose – geese analysis – analyses species – species	tooth – teeth mouse – mice louse – lice person – people ox – oxen alga – algae

The following nouns do not change their form in the plural: **fruit, fish, sheep, deer, swine, antelope, trout**., **carp, salmon, pike, scissors, trousers, Chinese, Japanese, Vietnamese.**

The nouns *fruit and fish* take the ending ***-s*** to mean: different kinds of fish (carps, pikes, roaches, etc.) or different kinds of fruit (apples, plums, pears, oranges, peaches, lemons, apricots, etc .) For example:

Children should eat more fruit.
Great Central Valley orchards yield peaches, olives,
oranges and lemons, in addition to other fruits.

How many fish did you catch yesterday?
Fish is not so cheap today.
They say fish are good for the brain.
They sell different fishes in this shop.

(5) Plural of *–o* nouns is *–oes* if a consonant goes before *o*:

go – goes, buffalo – buffaloes, cargo – cargoes, hero – heroes.
Exceptions: cantos, halos, grottos, pianos, solos

Note: Although *es* is often added to a singular noun ending in *o* preceded by a consonant, usage varies:

echoes	heroes	potatoes	vetoes	*[-es* only];
autos	memos	pimentos	pros	*[-s* only];

If a vowel goes before *-o*, "*s*" only is added to form the plural:

bamboo – bamboos; cameo – cameos;
cuckoo – cuckoos; folio – folios

Some alternative plurals: hoofs – hooves; scarfs – scarves; wharfs – wharves, nos – noes, mottos – mottoes, zeros – zeroes [*-s* or *-es*]

Exercise. Supply plural forms (including any optional spelling) for the following words. (If a word is not covered by the rule, use your dictionary.)

1. belief	6. bath	11. radius	16. phenomenon
2. theory	7. hero	12. scarf	17. halo
3. church	8. story	13. wife	18. child
4. genius	9. wish	14. speech	19. handful
5. kelly	10. forty	15. tomato	20. rodeo

Nouns can be countable or uncountable:

Countable nouns		**Uncountable nouns**	
pen	time	tea	coffee
book	grass	milk	wine
dress	water	salt	sadness
house	sand	bread	kindness
apple	glass	cheese	fight
table	coal	ice cream	freedom
street	gold	pepper	courage
car	silver	butter	music
flat	iron	soup	pity
shop.	oil	honey	silence
room	ice	juice	happiness
town	air	copper	fortune

There are nouns which agree with the verbs only in the singular or in the plural.

Singular		Plural	
money	advice	trousers	
fruit	phonetics	clothes	pants
fish	linguistics	tongs	cattle
hair	mathematics	spectacles	wages
news	physics	breeches	people
knowledge	optics	scissors	opera-glasses
billiards		poultry	

Grammar : Using the definite article *the* before proper names

The definite article is sometimes used as part of a name. You should use *the* before the names of rivers, oceans, seas, and valleys. Don't use *the* before continents, states, cities, or single mountains. Usually, countries don't have *the* before them. There are some exceptions: countries with the word Union or United; full titles of countries with prepositional phrases.

Use *the* for:	Don't use *the* for	Don't use *the* for
Rivers	***Continents***	***Single mountains***
the Nile	Asia	Mount Washington
the Amazon	Africa	Mount Everest
the Mississippi	Europe	Mount Fuji
Oceans and Seas	***States***	***Countries:***
the Atlantic Ocean	New York	China
the Sea of Japan	California	Nigeria
the Mediterranean	Florida	Venezuela But: the Hetherlands, the Sudan
the Black Sea	***Cities***	The Federal Republic of Germany
Valleys	Miami	the United States of America; the People's Republic of China
the Red River Valley	Tokyo	
the Nile Valley	Caracas Washington	
	Kyiv New York London But: the Hague	

PRONOUNS

Pronouns serve the function of nouns in sentences:

They *bought* ***it*** *for* ***her****.* ***Everyone*** *knows* ***this****.*

Pronouns are classified into the following groups:

personal (*I, he, she, it, we, you, they*).

possessive (*my, his, her, its, our, your, their, mine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs*).

reflexive (*myself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, (yourself), themselves*).

reciprocal (*each other, one another*).

demonstrative (*this (these), that (those), the same, such*).

interrogative (*who, whose, what, which*).

relative (*who, whose, which, that, as*).

conjunctive (*who, whose, which, what*).

defining (*each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, all, either, both, other, another*).

indefinite (*some, any, somebody, anybody, something, anything, someone, one, anyone*).

negative (*no, none, neither, nobody, no one, nothing*).

Some pronouns have the grammatical categories of person, gender, case, and number.

ADJECTIVES

The adjective is a word expressing a quality of a substance.

Adjectives modify or qualify nouns and pronouns (and sometimes gerunds) and are generally placed near the words they modify:

> *The **beautiful** and **famous** cathedrals no longer interest **homesick** tourists. **Thrifty** and **sensible**, he will be promoted soon.*

Adjectives may function as complements of the subject or of the object:

> *The Great Smoky Mountains are **most beautiful** in the fall. Her tennis serve made Joanne **famous**.*

Suffixes such as *-al, -able, -ant, -ative, -ic, -ish, -less, -ous,* and *-y* may be added to certain verbs or nouns to form adjectives:

> *accept, repent* (verbs) *–acceptable, repentant* (adjectives);
> *angel, effort* (nouns) *–angelic, effortless* (adjectives).

Most adjectives have degrees of comparison: the comparative degree and the superlative degree. They form their degrees of comparison synthetically (by the inflexion *-er, -est*) or in the analytical way (by placing *more* or *most* before the adjective. Some adjective have no degrees of comparison.

COMPARATIVES

cold – colder	large – larger	lazy – lazier
short – shorter	safe – safer	pretty – prettier
fast – faster	nice – nicer	busy – busier

big - bigger hot - hotter red - redder	beautiful – more beautiful interesting – more interesting comfortable – more comfortable

Dialogue

A. I think you'll like my new house.

B. But I liked your old house very much. Your old house was large and light. It was situated in a beautiful place and there was a big yard in front of the house.

A. That's right. But my new house is larger and lighter. There is even a bigger yard in front of the house and the place is more beautiful.

B. It sounds great. I'm glad you like your new house.

Exercise. Form comparatives of the following adjectives:

Fancy, pretty, shiny, soft, attractive, light, smart, clever, thick, impossible, miserable, sad. happy, deep, brave.

Exercise. Learn the following adjectives which have irregular forms of degrees of comparison.

good – better	little – less	old – older (of age)
bad – worse	many – more	old – elder (of family relationship)
much – more	far – farther, further.	

SUPERLATIVES

kind – the kindest	busy – the busiest
cold – the coldest	happy – the happiest
nice – the nicest	big – the biggest
safe – the safest	hot – the hottest

polite – the most polite
talented – the most talented
comfortable – the most comfortable
energetic – the most energetic

Exercise. Learn the adjectives which have irregular forms of degrees of comparison.

good – the best	much – the most	little – the least
bad – the worst	many – the most	far – the farthest, the furthest

old – the oldest (of age)
old – the eldest (of family relationship)

Exercise. Give the comparative and the superlative degrees of the following adjectives.

Bad, difficult, remarkable, little, good, hospitable, polite, friendly, usual, lovely, quiet, narrow, happy, simple, tall, expensive.

Dialogue

A. May I help you?
B. Yes, please. I want to buy a good video recorder.
A. I think you'll like this one. It's very good.
B. Don't you have a better video recorder?
A. No. I'm afraid not. This is the best one we have.
B. Thank you. I'll take it then. How much is it.
A. Two hundred dollars. I hope you'll like it.
B. Thank you very much.
A. I'm glad I could help you. Please, come again.

Exercise. Make up dialogues according to the model given above using the following comparatives.

a large refrigerator	a larger refrigerator	the largest refrigerator
a cheap typewriter	a cheaper typewriter	the cheapest typewriter
a good tape recorder	a better tape recorder	the best tape recorder
a modern sofa	a more modern sofa	the most modern sofa
a comfortable chair	a more comfortable chair	the most comfortable chair
an elegant dress	a more elegant dress	the most elegant dress
a short novel	a shorter novel	the shortest novel
a small table	a smaller table	the smallest table

ADVERBS

The adverb is a part of speech which expresses some circumstances that attend an action or state, or points out some characteristic features of an action or a quality. Adverbs are divided into simple (*long, fast*), derivative (*slowly, forward, beautifully*), compound (*sometimes, anyhow*), and composite (*at last*).

As the examples show, adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. In addition, an adverb may modify a verbal, a phrase, a clause, or even the rest of the sentence in which it appears: *rarely* saw, call *daily, soon* left, left *sooner, very* short, *too* angry, *never* shy, *not* fearful, *practically never* loses, *nearly always* cold.

*e.g. I noticed a plane **slowly** circling overhead. **Honestly**, Ben did catch a big shark.*

The *-ly* ending nearly always converts adjectives to adverbs: *rare, honest* (adjectives) – *rarely, honestly* (adverbs).

slow – slowly	terrible – terribly	busy – busily
bad – badly	simple – simply	lazy – lazily
beautiful – beautifully	miserable – miserably	easy – easily
kind – kindly	favourable – favourably	angry – angrily

There are some adverbs which have the same form as adjectives:

fast – fast, hard – hard, late – late, early – early.

The adverb from *good* is *well*.

Some adverbs have degrees of comparison: the comparative degree and the superlative degree.

COMPARATIVES

fast – faster
hard – harder
late – later
early – earlier

softly – softer – more softly
loud(ly) – louder – more loudly
slowly – slower – more slowly
neatly – neater – more neatly

carefully – more carefully
politely – more politely
impolitely – more impolitely
probably – more probably
beautifully – more beautifully

Exercise. Learn the adverbs which have irregular forms of degrees of comparison.

Well – better, much – more, few – fewer, badly – worse, little – less.

The comparative and the superlative degrees of the adverbs *Far, Near, Late*					
I live	far near	My brother lives	farther nearer	and my sister lives	farthest of all; nearest of all
I come home	late	My brother comes home	later	and my sister comes home	latest of all

Exercise. Give the comparative degree of the following adverbs:

Slowly, little, well, badly. hard. much, strictly, quietly, easily, distinctly.

Dialogue
A. Mark speaks very quickly.
B. Right, and he sometimes eats the words.
A. He should try to speak slower (more slowly).
B. I always tell him about it.

Exercise. Make up conversation with your classmates using the following opposites.

very softy – louder (more loudly)
very early – later
very impolitely – more politely
very carelessly – more carefully
very slowly – quicker (more quickly)
too fast – slower (more slowly),
much bread – less bread

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

slowly softly	slower more slowly softer more softly	most slowly most softly
carefully politely usefully	more carefully more politely more usefully	most carefully most politely most usefully
well bad little	better worse less	best worst least

Exercise. Translate the following.

1. John drives the car as carefully as Peter, but Tom drives the car most carefully. 2. Jane studies well. She studies better than Mary. 3. Nick did his grammar exercises most carelessly in the class. 4. This village is furthest of all from the main road. 5. Jim runs fast, faster than Lee, but David runs fastest. 6. His voice sounded most loud.

PREPOSITIONS

The preposition is a part of speech which denotes the relation between objects and phenomena. It shows the relations between a noun or a pronoun and other words: *on* a shelf, *between* us, *because of* rain, *to* the door, *by* them, *before* class.

A preposition always has an object, which is usually a noun or a pronoun. The preposition links and relates its object to some other word in the sentence. The preposition with its object (and any modifiers) is called a *prepositional phrase:*

*e.g. Byron expressed **with great force** his love **of liberty**.*

As to their morphological structure prepositions are classified into the following groups:

simple (*in, on, at, with, for,* etc.)
derivative (*across, below, along, behind,* etc.)
compound (*inside, outside, without, within*, etc.)
composite (*because of, in front of, in accordance with,* etc.)

According to their meaning prepositions may be divided into prepositions of place, direction, time, and prepositions expressing abstract relations (*with a view to, because of,* etc.)

The preposition may follow rather than precede its object, and it may be placed at the end of the sentence:

*What are you selling it **for**? Faith is what we live **by**.*

Here are words which are commonly used as prepositions:

Single prepositions:

about	before	by	in
above	behind	concerning	inside
across	below	despite	into
after	beneath	down	like
against	beside	during	near
along	besides	except	of
among	between	excepting	off
around	beyond	for	on
at	but	from	onto
out	round	to	up
outside	since	toward	upon
over	through	under	with
past	throughout	underneath	within
regarding	till	until	without

Phrasal prepositions (two or more words):

according to	by way of	in spite of
along with	due to	instead of
apart from	except for	on account of
as for	in addition to	out of
as regards	in case of	up to
as to	in front of	with regard to
because of	in view of	with respect to
by means of	in place of	with reference to
by reason of	in regard to	with the exception of

CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions function as connectors of sentences, parts of the sentence, words, phrases, or clauses.

Conjunctions fall into two classes; coordinating and subordinating.

The coordinating conjunctions *(and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet)* and the correlatives *(both – and, either – or, neither – nor, not only – but also, whether – or)* connect sentence elements of equal grammatical rank.

e.g. *The big piano was put in a corner* ***and*** *then there came a row of flower pots* ***and*** *then there came the goldy chairs.* (K. Mansfield)

The subordinating conjunctions (such as *after, as if, because, if, since, till, when, where, while)* connect subordinate clauses with main clauses. E.g. Though alone, he was not lost. (J. London)

Adverbs like *however, nevertheless, then, therefore,* etc. are used as conjunctive adverbs (or adverbial conjunctions):

e.g. *Don seemed bored in class;* ***however****, he did listen and learn.*

INTERJECTIONS

The interjection is a part of speech which expresses various emotions without naming them: *Wow! Oh,* that's a surprise.

Interjections are exclamations, which may be followed by an exclamation point or by a comma. According to their meaning interjections may be emotional and imperative. Emotional interjections express the feelings of the speaker while imperative interjections show the will of the speaker or his appeal to the hearer.

e.g. "What a picture" cried the ladies. Oh, the ducks! Oh, the lambs! Oh, the sweets! Oh, the pets!" (K. Mansfield). Oh! Oh! Oh! It was a little house. (K. Mansfield); Here! I've had enough of this. I'm going. (B. Shaw)

FUNCTIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH IN THE SENTENCE

Let's consider the functions of parts of speech on the following example:

Waiters usually offer us free coffee at Joe's cafe.

	Function	**Part of speech**
waiters	subject	noun
usually	modifier	adverb

offer	verb of predicate	verb
us	indirect object	pronoun
free	modifier	adjective
coffee	direct object	noun
at	preposition	preposition
joe's	modifier	noun
café	object of preposition	noun

Notice here that one part of speech – the noun (a naming word with a typical form) – is used as a subject, a direct object, a modifier, and an object or a preposition.

HOW ARE THE PARTS OF SPEECH LABELED IN DICTIONARIES?

A dictionary labels words according to their part of speech. Some words have only one classification – for example, *notify* (verb), *sleepy* (adjective), *practically* (adverb). Other words have more than one label. The word *living,* for instance, is first treated as a form of the verb *live* and is then listed separately and defined as an adjective and as a noun. The actual classification depends on the use of the word in a given sentence:

They were ***living*** wretchedly. [verb]
She is a ***living*** example of patience. [adjective]
He barely makes ***a living***. [noun]
Another example is the word *up:*
Look ***up***! [adverb]
They dragged the sled ***up*** the hill. [preposition]
The ***up*** escalator is jerking again. [adjective]
He follows ***the ups*** and downs of the market. [noun]
“They will ***up*** the rent again,” he complained. [verb]

Exercise. Using your dictionary as an aid if you wish, classify each word in the following sentences according to its part of speech.

1. He struts with the gravity of a frozen penguin.
2. Men are often taken, like rabbits, by the ears. And though the tongue has no bones, it can sometimes break millions of them.
3. Awesome is the tyranny of the fixed idea,
4. Of all persons, adolescents are the most intensely personal; their intensity is often uncomfortable to adults.
5. They pick a President and then for four years they pick on him.

SPELLING

SILENT LETTERS

The list includes some of the English words in which one or more letters are not sounded.

1. (*b*) debt, climb, limb, bomb, comb, doubt, subtle, thumb;

2. (*c*) in *sc* before *e*, *i*, and *y*: scene, science, scythe; viscera, visceral, viscid, viscidity);

3. (*d*) sandwich, handkerchief, Wednesday;

4. (*g*) in words beginning in *gn-*, and ending in *–gn*: gnash, gnat, gnome, gnaw, gnarl gnu, gnaw, gnawing, Gnostic; campaign, reign, foreign, sign, design, resign (**but:** signature, resignation);

5. (*gh*) high, thought, borough, thorough (**but:** laugh, cough, rough); (also in words ending in – *ght*: height, light, might, thought, brought, fight, fought, bought;

6. (*h*) – at beginning (as exceptions): hour, heir, honest, honour, honourable, honoured, honourless;

– in words beginning *rh-* : rhyme, rhythm, rhythmic, rhapsodically, rhapsody, rheme, rheostat, rhetoric, rhetorical, rheumatic, rheumatism, rhinitis, rhombus, rhumba; (also: ghost, Thomas, Thames);

7. (*k*) in words beginning *k-*: knight, knighthood, know, knowledge, knowledgeable, knife, knock, knit, knot, knob, knuckle;

8. (*l*) in *-alm, -alf, -alk*: almond, alm, alms, calf, half, calm, chalk, palm, psalm, salmon;

9. (*n*) in *-mn,*: autumn, condemn, damn, hymn, hymnbook, solemn (but: hymnal, hymnist, condemnation, damnation);

10. (*p*) in *ps-, pn-*: pneumatic, pneumonia, psychology, pseudo, pseudonym, psalm, psephology (also: cupboard, raspberry, receipt);

11. (*ps*) in *corps* : Peace Corps, ambulance corps (but: corpse);

12. (*r*) in *-rg-* between vowels: Argentine, Argo, argue, argument, argumentative, argent, argentry, argil;

notice silent ‘*r*’ in words: err, or, door, fur, car, war, Ireland, etc.

13. (*s*) in isle, island, aisle; (also: viscount, viscounty, viscountship, viscountess, viscountcy);

14. (*t*) in words ending in *–sten, -stle*: fasten, hasten, listen, castle, nestle, bustle, rustle;

15. (*w*) in words beginning in *wr-*,: wrath, wrong, write, writer, wrinkle, wriggle, wrist, wrestle, wrestler, wrap, wretched;

– in words ending in *-wn* lawn, lawn-mover, dawn, pawn, gawn, gown, gownsman; (also: who, whose, whole, answer, sword).

SOME RULES AND EXCEPTIONS

1. Words ending in vowels + single consonant double the final consonant before adding *–age, -ed, -er, -ing, -y*:

bag – baggage - baggy, rag – ragged, ban – banned,
spin – spinner – spinning, fog – foggy.

But the end consonant stays single when there is no stress on the last syllable of the word:

awaken – awakened, benefit – benefiting – benefited,
develop – developed.

Exceptions: handicap-ped, kidnap-ped

2. Words ending in two vowel letters + consonant, or in two consonants, do not double before endings:

squeal, squealed, explain, explained, plant, planted

Exceptions: dial-led, fuel-led, wool-len/ly, tranquil-lity

3. *-fer* words double the consonant before -ed, -ing: defer, deferred, deferring (also prefer, refer, etc.) but not before *-able, -ence*:

preferable, preference, reference;

-ffer words do not double before any ending.

4. Compounds using *all, full, till, nil*, drop one *l*:

almighty, almost, altogether, always, fulfill, fulsome, skilful,
spoonful, successful, willful, until, welcome,welfare.

Exception: farewell

Do not drop a final *l* when you add *-ly.*

Formal – formally, usual – usually, real – really, wool – woolly

5. Word ending *-ll* drop one *l* before -ment, but not before *-ness*:

install – instalment (also: installment); illness, stillness

Alternative exceptions: dul(l)ness, ful(l)ness

6. Words of more than one syllable ending in a single vowel + ***l***, not already mentioned, double ***l*** before endings beginning with a vowel regardless of where the stress is:

control-lable; distil-lation; control-led; model-led;
panel-led; panel-ling; quarrel-led, travel-ler.

Exception: parallel-ed

7. Verbs ending in a silent *e* drop the *e* before an ending beginning with a vowel, or *y*:

arrive, arriv-al; rate, rat-ing, rat-ed; examine,
examination; fame, fam-ous, noise, nois-y

Exceptions: seeing, eyeing, singeing, tingeing, hoeing, teeing, shoeing, dyeing

8. Words ending in a silent *e* drop this before *-able* unless it is needed to soften *c* or *g.*

love, lovable; move, movable
But: charge-able, manage-able, notice-able, peace-able

9. Apply the rules for spelling to avoid confusion of *ei* and *ie*.

When the sound is /i:/ ***(ee),*** write *ie* (except after c, in which case write *ei).*

chief, grief, pierce, wield, believe, relieve,
piece, field, niece, relief, yield.

When the sound is other than /i:/ ***(ee),*** usually write *ei.*

Counterfeit, foreign, heifer, heir, sleigh, vein, forfeit,
freight, height, neighbor, stein, weigh

Exceptions: friend, mischief, sheik:

After *c* write *ei*:

ceiling, conceive, receive, deceive, conceit, perceive

Exceptions: seize, Sheila (name of a girl).

10. Apply the rules for spelling when adding prefixes and suffixes to the root.

The root is the base to which the prefix or the suffix is added. Add the prefix to the root without doubling or dropping letters.

Do not double the last letter of the prefix when it is different from the first letter of the root (as in *disappear).* Do not drop the last letter of the prefix when the root begins with the same letter (as in *immortal).*

dis + agree = disagree, dis + satisfied = dissatisfied, un + usual = unusual, un + noted = unnoted, mis + used = misused, mis + spent = misspent, re + do = redo, re + elect = reelect [OR: re-elect]

11. *-ise* or *-ize* spellings. Where both forms are in use in the language, use the one you are most sure of:

emphasize – emphasize; recognise – recognize

Exercise. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate letters: *ei* or *ie.*

1. p_____ce	6. ap____ce	11. n____ce
2. ach____ve	7. bel____f	12. sh____ld
3. rec____ve	8. cone____ve	13. w____rd
4. n____gh	9. th____r	14. shr____к
5. fr____ght	10. dec____t	15. pr____st

SOME ALTERNATIVE SPELLINGS

abridg(e)ment – acknowledg(e)ment; connention – connexion; honeyed – honied; reflection – reflexion

SPELLING OF VERBS

1. Almost all verbs add *-s* in the third person singular. Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

He works, (work, know, count, make, use)
She cuts, (cut, help, cook, dance)

2. A few verbs add *-es* in the third person singular. They are verbs that end in *s, z, sh, ch,* or *x*.

Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

He fixes, (fix, finish, relax, rush)
She watches, (watch, toss, wash, teach)

3. If a verb ends in a consonant and *-y*, change the *y* to *i* before adding *-es*. If the verb ends in a vowel and *-y*, simply add *s*.

Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

He tries, (try, fry, study, hurry, carry, marry)
She says, (say, enjoy, play, stay, buy, pay)

4. The verb have is irregular. The third person singular form is has.

He has a cookbook.

SOME ALTERNATIVE VERB FORMS

Past Indefinite:

ate – eat; burnt – burned; dreamt – dreamed; leant – leaned;
leapt – leaped; learnt – learned; shrank – shrunk; smelt – smelled,
spelt – spelled; spilt – spilled; spoilt – spoiled.

Notice the verbs (1) *bath* and (2) *bathe* have similarly spelt participles, but are differently pronounced:

bathing: (1) [ba:θiŋ] (2) [beiðiŋ]
bathed: (1) [ba:θt] (2) [beiðd]

SPELLING *-ING* VERB FORMS

The present progressive tense is a combination of two verbs: auxiliary and the main verbs. The auxiliary is a form of *be*, and the main verb takes an *-ing* ending. The spelling rules depend on the order of vowel (V) and consonants (C) in the verb.

1. Verbs that end with *e* drop the *e* and add *-ing*.

Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

She is writing, (write, drive, live, come, move)
We are dancing, (dance, shave, hide, smile, hope)

2. Verbs that end in a vowel followed by a double consonant (VCC) or in a double vowel followed by a consonant (VVC) simply add *-ing*.

Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

He is cooking (cook, wait, help, count, sleep, think)
They are working (work, eat, read, watch, finish, walk)

3. Verbs that end in a single stressed vowel followed by a single consonant (VC) must add another consonant before adding *-ing*. Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

I am swimming, (swim, win, plan, sit, stop)
You are cutting, (cut, run, dig, shop, get up)

Notice that verbs with the stress before the last syllable do not follow this pattern. They do not take a double consonant.

visit – visiting, enter – entering, limit – limiting

A few more exceptions to the rule of the double consonant are verbs that end in *w, x,* or *y*. They do not double. Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

He is buying, (buy, relax, grow)
We are playing, (play, fix, pay, saw)

4. Verbs that end in *-ie* change the *-ie* to *y* and add *-ing*.

She is dying (die, lie, tie)

5. Verbs that end in other vowels simple take *-ing*.

We are going (dye, see)

SPELLING OF THE PAST TENSE WITH REGULAR VERBS

Regular verbs take an *-ed* ending to form the past tense. The spelling rules depend on the spelling and the syllable stress of the verb.

1. Verbs that end with *e* simply add *-d*.

Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

We danced, (dance, live, hope, move, dye)
They smiled, (smile, save, shave, love)

2. Verbs that end in a double consonant (VCC) or in a double vowel followed by a consonant (VCC) simply add *–ed.*

Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

She worked (work, wait, count, wash, call)
He helped (help, cook, watch, rush, turn)

3. Verbs that end in a single stressed vowel followed by a single consonant (VC) must add another consonant before taking *-ed*. Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

I planned (plan, whip, brag, sob, chop)

Notice that verbs with the stress before the last syllable do not follow this pattern. They do not take a double consonant.

visit – visited; enter – entered; limit – limited

A few more exceptions to the rule of the double consonant are verbs that end in *w, x* or *y*. They do not double. Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

You relaxed, (relax, play, fix, saw)

4. Verbs that end in a consonant and *y* (Cy) change the *y* to *i* and add *-ed*. Write the forms below with the correct spelling.

She studied (study, fry, try, cry, marry, carry)

Exercise. Rewrite this paragraph, changing all the verbs to past tense forms.

In most restaurants, all the cooks and waitresses work together. The head cook plans the meals. His helper shops for meat and fresh vegetables. There is one cook for the vegetables. He washes, chops, and cooks vegetables. One cook works with desserts. He whips the cream and bakes the cakes. One cook fries chicken and potatoes. The waitresses move quickly. They talk to the customers, ask for orders, pick up the food, and carry it back to the table. Everyone tries to make the restaurant a success.

SPELLING NOUN PLURALS

Noun plurals follow the same spelling rules as the *-s* forms of present tense verbs. Add *-s* for most nouns; add *-es* if the noun ends in *s, z, sh, ch,* or *x*. Nouns that end in a consonant and *y* change the *y* to *i* and add *-es*.

Write the plural form for each noun below:

1. Add *-s* to: pain, ache, pill, aspirin, job, problem, office, doctor, pharmacist, helper, prescription
2. Add *-es* to: lunch, dish, box, dress, tax
3. Change the *y* to *i* and add *-es*: family, pharmacy, country, city, hobby

BREAKING –WORDS OVER A LINE

Students are always asking how to divide English words at the end of a line.

What follows is more a guide than a set of rules. In typing, the need to break words is unavoidable, but in writing by hand you have the advantage of being able to avoid the practice until you know where to break.

(a) Similar double consonants divide:

car-riage, shrub-bery, syl-lable

(b) Double consonants between vowels divide:

Kan-garoo, chim-ney, mos-quito

(c) Three consonants between vowels divide after the first consonant:

hat-ched, alig-hted, mus-cles

(d) Two vowel sounds (unless they form a diphtong) divide:
seri-alise, recipi-ent

(e) Vowel followed by diphthong divides:
continu-ous, studi-ous

(f) A prefix or suffix of more than two letters divides:
over-take, child-hood

(g) Compound words divide into their parts:
back-ground, sand-paper, dash-board, chalk-board

(h) *-cial, -cian, -sion, -tial, -tion* make a division:
provin-cial, musi-cian, deci-sion, par-tial, inten-tion

(i) *-ing* forms a division:
start-ing, plant-ing

But two similar consonants before *-ing* divide, unless the final consonant is already doubled:
lop-ping, cut-ting, hum-ming
But: guess-ing, fall-ing, stall-ing

(j) For words not in the groups above, break on voice syllables:
harl-cot, vine-gar, docu-ment

(k) *-gh* in words like *thoroughly, roughly*, does not divide.

(l) One letter or two similar letters at the beginning or end of a word do not form a division.

(m) Short words of two syllables, words of one syllable, and proper nouns, do not divide: enter, boat, Martyn

A final word of advice to the English learner is to use these advices in order to be aware of the possibilities; to listen and read as much as possible, and to read observantly. That way what may at first seem a problem without beginning or end, will slowly show itself capable of order and solution.

USEFUL VOCABULARY

A LIST OF WORDS FREQUENTLY CONFUSED

accept, except
access, excess
advice, advise
affect, effect
descent, dissent
dam, damn
desert, dessert
device, devise

aisle, isle
alley, ally
allude, elude
already, all ready
altar, alter
altogether, all together
always, all ways
angel, angle
ascent, assent
assistance, assistants
bare, bear
birth, berth
board, bored
born, borne
breath, breathe
canvas, canvass
Calvary, cavalry
capital, capitol
censor, censure
choose, chose
cite, sight, site
clothes, cloths
coarse, course
complement, compliment
conscience, conscious
council, counsel

plain, plane
precede, proceed
presence, presents
principle, principal
prophecy, prophesy
purpose, propose
quiet, quite, quit
respectfully, respectively
reverend, reverent
right, rite, -wright, write
sense, since
stationary, stationery

dominant, dominate
dyeing, dying
envelop, envelope
fair, fare
formerly, formally
forth, fourth
gorilla, guerrilla
hear, here
heard, herd
hole, whole
holy, wholly
human, humane
its, it's
later, latter
lead, led
lesson, lessen
lightning, lightening
lose, loose
maybe, may be
minor, miner
moral, morale
of, off
passed, past
patience, patients
peace, piece
personal, personnel

statue, stature, statute
straight, strait
taut, taunt
than, then
their, there, they're
through, thorough
to, too, two
tract, track
weather, whether
were, where
who’s, whose
your, you’re

A LIST OF WORDS FREQUENTLY MISSPELLED

The following list may be studied in groups of ten or twenty at a time. Blank spaces are provided at the end of the list for the addition of other words which you may wish to master (possibly those from your special field of interest) or which your instructor may recommend.

1.

absence	achievement	advised
acceptable	acquainted	affected
accessible	acquire	affectionately
accidentally	acreage	aggravate
accommodate	across	aggression
accompanied	actually	aisles
accomplish	address	alcohol
accordion	admission	all right
accuracy	adolescent	a lot of 10
accustomed	advice	always

2.

amateur	barbarous	chief
among	bargain	children
analysis	basically	chocolate
ancestry	beautiful	chosen
angel	beginning	Christianity
annihilate	belief	coarsely
announcement	believed	commercial
anywhere	beneficial	commitment
apiece	benefited	committee
apology	biggest	competent

3.

apparent	birthday	competition
appearance	boundary	completely
appoint	breath	conceited
appreciate	breathe	conceive
appropriate	bulletin	concentrate
approximately	bureaucracy	condemn
arguing	business	confident
argument	cafeteria	conscience
arrest	calculator	conscientious
article	calendar	consensus

4.

aspirin	carrying	consistent
assassination	category	continuous
associate	cemetery	contradict

atheist
athletics
attached
attacked
attendance
authentic
average

census
certain
challenge
changeable
changing
channel
characteristic

controlled
controversial
convenient
coolly
courses
courteous
criticism

5.

criticize
crowd
cruelty
curiosity
curious
dealt
deceive
decision
decorate
definitely

disturb
divide
divine
doctor
dormitory
easily
ecstasy
effect
efficient
eighth

experiment
explanation
extremely
familiar
family
fascinate
favorite
February
finally
financially

6.

delicate
descend
description
desirable
despair
desperate
despicable
destroy
develop
different

elaborately
embarrass
empty
enemy
entirely
environment
equipment
equipped
escape
especially

fluorine
foreign
foresee
foretell
forty
forward
friend
fulfill
gauge
generally

7.

disagree
disappear
disappoint
disapprove
disastrous
discipline
discussion
disease
dispel
distinct

everything
evidently
exaggerate
excellent
except
exercise
exhaust
existence
expense
experience

government
governor
grammar
group
gruesome
guaranteed
guard
guerrilla
guidance
happened

8.

happily
harass
heard

indispensable
individually
influential

likelihood
listening
liveliest

height
here
heroes
hindrance
holiday
hoping
human

9.

humane
humorous
hundred
hungry
hurriedly
hypocrisy
hypocrite
ideally
idiosyncrasy
ignorant

10.

illogical
imaginary
imagine
imitate
immediately
immensely
incalculable
incidentally
incredible
independent

11.

muscle
mysterious
narrative
naturally
necessary
nevertheless
nickel
niece
nineteen
ninety

12.

ninth
noticeable
noticing

initiative
innocuous
instead
insurance
intelligent
interest
interference

integrate
interrupt
introduce
involve
irrelevant
irresistible
irritated
jealousy
jewelry
knowledge

laboratory
laid
led
leisure
length
lenient
liable
library
license
lightning

opposite
oppression
optimism
ordinarily
originally
paid
pamphlet
parallel
paralleled
parole

particle
particularly
past

lose
luxury
lying
magazine
magnificent
maintenance
manageable

management
maneuver
manual
marriage
material
mathematics
meanness
meant
medicine
mere

miniature
minor
minutes
mirror
mischievous
missile
morale
morals
mortgage
morning

poison
politician
pollute
possession
possibly
practical
practically
precede
predominant
preferred

prejudice
prepare
preparation

nowadays
nuclear
nuisance
numerous
occasion
occasionally
occurred

pastime
peaceable
peculiar
penetrate
perceive
performance
perhaps

pretty
prevail
prevalent
principle
prisoner
privilege
probably

13.

occurrence
occurring
off
official
omission
omit
omitted
omitting
opponent
opportunity

permanent
permissible
persuade
pertain
phase
physical
pigeon
pitiful
planned
pleasant

procedure
proceed
processes
professor
prominent
pronunciation
propaganda
prophecy
prophesy
psychology

14.

publicly
pumpkin
purpose
pursue
pursuing
pursuit
quandary
quantity
questionnaire
quiet

remember
remembrance
reminisce
repetition
representative
reproduce
resemblance
resistance
resources
restaurant

several
sheriff
shining
shoulder
shrubbery
significant
similar
simply
since
sincerely

15.

quite
quizzes
rarity
reality
realize
really
rebel
receipt
receive
recession

review
rhythm
ridiculous
roommate
sacrifice
safety
sandwich
satellite
Saturday
saxophone

ski
skiing
sophomore
source
souvenir
speak
speeches
specimen
sponsor
statistics

16.

recipe
recognize
recommend

scarcity
scenery
schedule

stayed
stepped
stopped

referring
regular
regulate
rehearsal
relief
relieve
religious

secede
secretary
seize
senseless
sentence
separate
sergeant

straight
strategy
strength
strenuous
stretch
strict
stubbornness

17.

studies
studying
suburban
succeed
succession
sufficient
suicide
summary
superintendent
supersede

thorough
though
thought
through
till
tobacco
together
tomorrow
too
tragedy

view
villain
violence
visible
vitamins
warrant
warring
weather
Wednesday
weird

18.

suppose
suppress
surely
surprise
surround
suspicious
susceptible
swimming
symbol
technical

transferred
tremendous
trouble
truly
twelfth
typical
tyranny
unanimous
unconscious
undoubtedly

where
wherever
whether
whichever
wholly
whose
without
woman
women
writing

19.

technique
temperature
tempor
tendency
than
their
theirs
themselves
then
therefore

until
usage
using
usually
vacuum
valuable
various
vegetable
vengeance
vice

written
yield

UP-TO-DATE EQUIVALENTS ADOPTED BY SPEAKERS

In order to sound impressive or expert

ambience – surroundings
archetypal – typical
compassionate – understanding
concept – a rough plan
conceptualise – to imagine
deploy – to use or place
dialogue – discussions
embattled – worried, hard-pressed
ersatz – artificial
escalate – to rise or increase
finalise – to finish
global – worldwide
implement – carry out or achieve
literature – printed information
manipulate – to control or sway
meaningful – important
mentality – mind, attitude
meticulous – careful
minimal – small
motivate – to encourage
objective – unbiased or fair
ongoing – current, continuing
optimal – ideal, best
optimistic – hopeful
palpable – obvious
pedigree = record, experience
perception = an opinion or view
personnel = staff or workers
pragmatic = practical
sabotage – to spoil or wreck
subjective = personal or biased
synthesise = to combine or combine into
utilise = to use
venue = a place or setting

Slangy synonyms:

bid = an attempt
crusade – compaign
curbs = restrictions
deliver = to accomplish, achieve
enjoy! = enjoy it or enjoy yourself

flak = criticism
gag – to censor
must = a necessity
nous = common sense, intelligence
probe = investigation
relax! = calm down
slam – to criticise
smear = an insulting or libellous allegation
supremo = a person having full authority

Pretentious metaphors mostly from tabloid newspapers

bomshell = a surprise
breakthrough = an advance or success
facelift = an improvement
front-runner = a leading contender
knee-jerk = unthinking, automatic
marathon = going on for a long time
massage = to falsify or distort slightly
mileage = advantage
orchestrate = to organise deliberately
overtones = hints
strongman = a political despot, a dictator
target = to strive for, to intend
thaw = an improvement in relations
traumatised = distressed
whitewash = to gloss over mistakes

Before choosing a synonym or closely related word look it up in the dictionary to make sure that it expresses your meaning exactly. Although *stark, idle,* and *inexpressive* are synonyms of *empty,* they have vastly different connotations.

THE RULES OF EFFECTIVE WRITING

CAPITALS

Capital letters give importance, distinction, and emphasis. Every sentence begins with a capital letter – to emphasise that a new thought has begun. Capital letters are viewed as a means of assigning special significance to words.

Capital letters are often referred to as ‘upper-case letters’, and small letters are called ‘lower-case letters’.

Words should be capitalized according to standard conventions. Unnecessary capitals should be avoided. A study of the principles in this section should help you use capitals correctly. When special problems arise with individual words or phrases, consult a good recent college dictionary. Dictionary entries of words that are regularly capitalized begin with capitals:

Satanism	Milky Way	Statue of Liberty
Halloween	Library of Congress	Buckeye State

Dictionaries also list capitalized abbreviations, along with options if usage is divided:

Dr., Mrs.	Ph.D.	A.M., a.m., AM
AMA, A.M.A.	M.A.	uhf, UHF

A recent dictionary is an especially useful guide when a trademark (such as *Band-Aid, Frisbee,* or *Kleenex)* begins to function as a common noun *(bandaid, frisbee, kleenex),* and when a generally uncapitalized word is capitalized because of a specific meaning in a given sentence:

These are mosaic pictures. [having a certain design].

These are Mosaic laws. [of/or pertaining to Moses]

Most capitalized words fall into three main categories: proper names, key words in titles, and the first words of sentences.

Capitalize proper names, words used as an essential part of proper names, and, usually, derivatives and abbreviations of proper names.

Proper names begin with capitals, but names of classes of persons, places, or things do not:

Manchester University, Harvard University, the Eiffel Tower, the New World, the Lake School Poets, Main Street, the Constitution;
a sophomore, a main street, (any) constitution,
citizens, mountains, valleys

The names of specific persons, places, and things are capitalized: peoples and their languages; religions and their adherents; members of national, political, racial, social, civic, and athletic groups; geographical names and regions; organizations and institutions; historical documents, periods, and events; calendar designations; trademarks; holy books and words denoting the Supreme Being.

Tom Evans, Europe, the Olympics, Jews, English, Christianity, a Christian, Americans, Southern Democrat, a Methodist, the Jaycees, Detroit Lions, Los Angeles, Arctic Ocean, the Midwest, the Red Cross, Newman Club, the U.S. Senate, Indiana University, the Fifth Amendment, the Middle Ages, the Haymarket Riot, Monday, September, Labor Day, Masonite, the Bible, Koran, God, Allah, Yahweh.

Note 1: Some writers capitalize pronouns (except *who, whom, whose)* referring to the Deity. Many writers capitalize such pronouns only when the capital is needed to prevent ambiguity, as in the following sentence:

The Lord commanded the prophet to warn His people.

Note 2: Capitalize names of objects, animals, or ideas when they are personified.

I could feel Old Man Time breathing down the back of my neck

Words like *university, college, river, lake, park, memorial, street, hotel, company, etc.,* are capitalized only when they are used as essential part of proper names:

Yale University	Cape Cod Bay	Grand Canyon
Long Island City	Madison Avenue	A&M Feed Store

Lake Ontario, Lincoln Memorial, St. Mary Street, Astoria Hotel,

[Compare Norwegian elkhounds, a Honda hatchback, Parkinson's disease, Quaker guns.]

Note: In instances such as the following, capitalization depends on word placement:

on the Erie and Huron lakes on Lakes Erie and Huron

Words derived from proper names are usually capitalized:

Americanize, Israelite, Stalinism, Arabic,
Orwellian, Dickensian, Hamlet-like

All proper adjectives are capitalizes. A proper adjective is an adjective that is made from a proper noun:

the English language, the Italian language, Chinese food,
French tourists, Ukrainian landscapes, the British English,
the American English.

When a lower-case prefix is attached to a proper noun or adjective, the main part of the word usually keeps its capital letter. Such words are usually hyphenated:

un-American, anti-American, anti-British, non-Jewish,
mid-Atlantic, pro-European

As a rule, abbreviations of capitalized words (or acronyms formed from them) are capitalized:

Washington, D.C. G. B. Shaw NBC USMC NATOMIRV

Note 3. Both *no.* and *No.* are correct abbreviations for *number,* as in *No. 444* or *no. 444.*

When proper names and their derivatives become names of a general class, they are no longer capitalized.

malapropism [derived from *Mrs. Malaprop* (the character in Richard Sheridan's play *The Rivals*)], chauvinistic [derived from *Nicholas Chauvin*]. Also: ampere, boycott, dutch auction, sandwich, chinaware, guillotine, jersey, morocco leather, to pasteurize, platonic love, silhouette, etc.

In ordinary writing, capitalize titles of persons and titles of respect that precede a proper name, but not those that follow it.

Doctor Freeman, Major Thomas, Governor Paul Smith, Captain Palmer, Aunt Edith, Paul Smith, Mayor Flynn (BUT: our governor; Palmer, the captain; Edith, my aunt, Mr. Flynn, the mayor).

Capitalize abbreviations for titles of respect : Mrs., Ms., Dr., Gov.

Capitalize the greeting in letter writing: Dear Mr. Jones, Dear Mrs. Woods.

Capitalize the initial and the first letter of a name of a person: S.T. Coleridge.

Note 4. Usage is divided regarding the capitalization of titles indicating high rank or distinction when not followed by a proper name, or of words denoting family relationship when used as substitutes for proper names.

Who was the President (OR president) of the United States?

"Oh, Dad (OR dad)!" I said. "Tell Mother (OR mother)".

In titles of books, plays, student papers, and so on, capitalize the first and last words and all other words except articles *(a, an, the),* short conjunctions, and short prepositions.

Crime and Punishment; Midnight on the Desert;
Lord of the Rings; Lord of the Flies; French Lieutenant's Woman,
The Great Train Robbery
"A Code to Live By", "Journalists Who Influence Elections"

Note 5. In titles a conjunction or a preposition of five or more letters is usually capitalized.

The Man Without a Country; Coming Through the Rye

Note 6. In a title capitalize the first word of a hyphenated compound. As a rule, capitalize the word following the hyphen if it is a noun or a proper adjective or if it is equal in importance to the first word.

A *Substitute for the H-Bomb* [noun]
The Arab-Israeli Dilemma [proper adjective]
"Hit-and-Run Accidents" [parallel words]

Usage varies with respect to the capitalization of words following such prefixes as *anti-, ex-, re-,* and *self-:*

The Anti-Poverty Program, "Re-covering Old Sofas"

Capitalize the pronoun / and the interjection *O* (but not *oh,* except when it begins a sentence).

David sings, "Out of the depths I cry to thee, O Lord."

Capitalize the first word of every sentence and the first word of directly quoted speech.

She asked me what time it was.
The reply is always "Not today."

"Wow, college is great," I said. "Especially on weekends." [The first word of a fragment in dialogue is capitalized.] COMPARE "Wow, college is great," I said, "especially on weekends." In the lobby we had a chance to get reacquainted. (It was a fifteen-minute intermission.) We talked about how much fun we had in high school. [a parenthetical sentence between sentences].

COMPARE: In the lobby we had a chance to get reacquainted (it was a fifteen-minute intermission), and we talked about how much fun we had in high school, [a parenthetical main clause within a sentence]

Option:

One thing is certain: we are still a free people, [regular usage]

One thing is certain: We are still a free people, [used for emphasis]

In poetry writing the first word of each new line is capitalized irrespective of any punctuation at the end of a previous line.

Her eyes were large and full of light,
Her arms and neck were bare;
No garment she wore save a kirtle bright,
And her own long, raven hair.
(Henry Longfellow. *The Quadroon Girl*)

Avoid unnecessary capitals

Keep in mind this rule: common nouns may be preceded by the indefinite articles (*a*, *an)* and by such limiting modifiers as *every* or *several.*

a speech course in radio and television writing COMPARE Speech 245: Radio and Television Writing;

every university, several schools of medicine

COMPARE: the University of Colorado School of Medicine

When preceded by *a, an,* or modifiers like *every* or *several,* capitalized nouns name one or many of the members of a class: *a St. Bernard, an Iowan, several Catholics.* Study the following style sheet:

Style Sheet for Capitalization

CAPITALS	NO CAPITALS
Dr. Freda E. Watts	every doctor, my doctor
the War of 1812	a space war in 1999
English, Spanish, French	the language requirement
Harvard University	a university like Harvard
the U.S. Navy	a strong navy
December, Christmas	winter, holiday
the West, Westerners	to fly west, western regions
the Student Association	an association for students
Parkinson's disease	flu, asthma, leukemia
a Chihuahua, Ford trucks	a beagle, pickup trucks
two Democratic candidates	democratic procedures
our Bill of Rights	a kind of bill of rights

Exercise 1. Write brief sentences correctly using each of the following words.

(1) professor (2) Professor (3) college (4) College (5) south
(6) South (7) avenue (8) Avenue (9) theater (10) Theater

***Exercise 2*.** Supply capitals wherever needed in the sentences below.

1. Trying to raise my grade average in both english and history, i spent my thanksgiving holidays reading articles on recently proposed amendments to the u.s. constitution.
2. The west offers grand sights for tourists: the carlsbad caverns, yellow stone national park, the painted desert, the rockies, the pacific ocean.
3. At the end of his sermon on god's social justice as set forth in the bible, he said, “we democrats really ought to reelect senator attebury.”
4. The full title of daniel defoe’s novel *moll flanders* (1722) is t*he fortunes and misfortunes of the famous moll flanders ec. who was born in newgate, and during a life of continued variety for threescore years, besides her childhood, was twelve year a whore, five times a wife (whereof once to her own brother), twelve year a thief, eight year a transported felon in virginia, at last grew rich, lived honest & died a penitent. written from her own memorandums*)

ITALICS

In writing to indicate italics, underline words and phrases (along with the punctuation) in accordance with customary practices. Use italics sparingly for emphasis. In handwritten or typewritten papers, italics are indicated by underlining. Printers set underlined words in italic type.

It was on <u>60 Minutes</u> (typewritten)
It was on *60 Minutes* (printed)

Titles of separate, self-contained publications (books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, long musical works that are separately published) and titles of plays, films, radio and television programs, and long poems are italicized.

Jane Austen’s *Pride and Prejudice* (novel)
The Listener (magazine)
The Independent (newspaper)
Beethoven's *Moonlight Sonata* impressed me greatly*.*

[Note that the composer's name is not italicized.]

Walt Whitman’s *O Captain! My Captain!* is a great poem.

[The italicized punctuation *!* is a part of the title].

An initial *a, an,* or *the* is italicized and capitalized in a title.

E.g. Tickets to *The Homecoming* were easy to find.

Sometimes people prefer to leave out the initial *The* or *A* when they are part of a title of a literary work to make the title sound not awkward. So we may have either of the following:

Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales.*
Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*.

He pored over *Time,* the *Atlantic Monthly,* and the *New York Times* (or the New York *Times).*

Note that an initial *the* in titles of periodicals is usually not italicized and the name of the city in titles of newspapers is sometimes not italicized. Note also that it is probably better to italicize the *–s* suffix in the plurals of such italicized titles, not to write it in roman:

I've examined three latest *Newsweeks*.

A distinction is made between titles of books and titles of short stories, articles or chapters:

Rudyard Kipling's *Kim* (novel)
Rudyard Kipling's "William the Conqueror" (short story)

The usual practice is to reserve quotation marks for titles of the individual parts of longer works (such as chapters, short stories, essays, songs, short poems) and for titles of episodes of a radio or television series:

"Fleur's Body" is one of the best chapters in John Galsworthy's novel *The White Monkey*.
I switched the channel to *NTV* and watched a rerun of an episode called "Dreams."

Foreign words and phrases are usually underlined (italicized) in the context of an English sentence.

As tags go, she is *grande dame* where I am *jeune fille*,
and she leads all her life to match it. (Margaret Drabble,
A Summer Bird-Cage).

When foreign words are 'glossed' (i.e. translated or given a brief definition) the gloss generally appears in single quotation marks: (French *coup de maitre*, 'masterstroke'). When foreign word and phrases have become part of the English language and are familiar enough, they are printed in roman: Her coup d'etat was a real *coup de maitre*. The phrase 'coup d'etat' is common in English today.

Words, letters, and figures spoken of as such or used as illustrations are usually italicized.

In no other language could a foreigner be tricked into pronouncing *manslaughter* as *man's laughter.*

The letters *qu* replaced *cw* in such words as *queen, quoth,* and *quick.* (Charles C. Fries)

The first *3* and the final *0* of the serial number are barely legible.

The word *euphonious* is beautiful.

Why did you decide to name your daughter *Cleopatra*?

Sometimes the *h* is not pronounced in the word *hotel*.

Is that number *115*?

Names of ships, airplanes, and trains and titles of works of art are underlined (italicized).

The U.S.S. *Enterprise* was the first aircraft carrier of its kind.

The artist named the portrait *Innocence.*

And there she stayed, for the creek was so slender and the current so tricky and the oyster beds so perilous that no salvage captains would risk their own vessels to retrieve the *Molly Bell*.

(Cark Hiaasen)

Note: Names of spacecraft like the *Eagle* or *Columbia* are generally italicized. Practice varies, however, with names like Apollo 14 and Skylab 3.

Skylab’s fall during the week of the Voyager 3 flyby was a serious event. (Smithsonian)

Voyagers 1 and *2* carried antennae more than four times the diameter of *Mariner 4’s*. (Science 80)

Italics are used for the technical names of plants and animals – a particular type of scientific Latin:

The rice water weevil *(Lissorhoptrus oryzophilus)* is a potential threat to the California rice crop. (Scientific American)

The Lilac (*Syringa vulgaris*) has medical uses.

The horse (*Equus caballus*) has profoundly affected the course of world history.

Italics are also used to show that a word or phrase demands special emphasis – for the sake of urging the reader to reflect on it:

No! No! It mustn't happen. She would be disgraced. She would lose all respect. And it would be dreadful if… if…
If what? *If what?* (Catherine Cookson, *The Golden Straw*).

Sometimes italics are used to indicate a contrast. Consider these simple examples:

I only saw her on *Tuesday*.
I only *saw* her on Tuesday.
I only saw *her* on Tuesday.

In the first example *Tuesday* is italicized as distinct from Wednesday or any other day of the week. By the second example you are implying that you did not *speak* to her, while by the third one you imply that you saw *only her*, that *she* was the only person whom you *saw* that day. Such emphasis in writing corresponds to various devices of pronunciation and intonation in speech. Sometimes, italics are the least objectionable form of emphasis.

Writers occasionally use italics to show stress, especially in dialogue:

Out comes the jeer-gun again: "Whose side are *you* on?" (G. Elliott)

Sometimes italics are used to emphasize the meaning of a word, especially when the exact meaning might be missed without the italics.

To *do* justice means to treat all men with respect and human dignity –Negroes, whites, cops, and all of creation. (D. Gregory)
"Oh, I see," said Bridget. 'So it doesn't matter if *I'm* splattered all over the place." (Josephine Cox. *Tommorow the World*)

But overuse of italics for emphasis (like overuse of the exclamation point) defeats its own purpose. Use underlining (italics) sparingly for emphasis. Do not underline the title of your own paper. Try substituting more specific or more forceful words for those you are tempted to underline.

EXCEPTIONS:

A major exception is the Bible, whose name is printed in roman. Neither italics nor quotation marks are used in references to the Bible and its parts or to legal documents.

The Bible begins with the Book of Genesis.
How many Americans have actually read the Bill of Rights?

Occasionally quotation marks are used for titles of separate publications and of radio and television programs.

Italics are not used for trade names: a Ford Fiesta

Countless words borrowed from other languages are a part of the English vocabulary and are therefore not italicized:

amigo (Spanish)	dilemma (Greek)	karate (Japanese)
alumni (Latin)	disco (French)	pizza (Italian)

Dictionaries that label certain words and phrases as foreign are fairly dependable guides to the writer in doubt about the use of italics. The labels, however, are not always up-to-date, and writers must depend on their own judgment after considering current practices.

A title is not italicized when it stands at the head of a book or article. Accordingly, the title at the head of your paper (unless the title happens to be also that of a book) should not be italicized (underlined).

Exercise. Underline (italicize) all words in the following sentences that should be italicized.

1. While waiting for the dentist, I thumbed through an old issue of U.S. News & World Report and scanned an article on “Changes in Grading Policies.”
2. On the Queen Mary from New York to London, Eleanor said she was so bored that she read all three books of Dante’s The Divine Comedy!
3. Spelling errors involving the substitution of d for t in such words as partner and pretty reflect a tendency in pronunciation.
4. In Paris my young cousin attended a performance of Mozart's opera The Magic Flute, which she characterized in her letter as tres magnifique.
5. Michelangelo’s Battle of the Centaurs and his Madonna of the Steps are among the world’s finest sculptures.

ABBRREVIATIONS AND NUMBERS

Abbreviations are heavily used, and provide an invaluable space-saving service. Abbreviations are often identified by full stops: for example, M.A. (Master of Arts); G.B. Shaw (George Bernard Shaw). The full stop is often left out, for example, in abbreviations that consist entirely of capital letters: BBC, the USA, NNW. Though it also can be: B.B.C., the U.S.A., N.N.W. In abbreviations of people’s names the full stops are preferable: T.S. Eliot, P.B. Shelley, J.B. Priestley.

In private writing you will probably abbreviate words and names in any way you find useful and understandable. But in formal writing it is best to observe the well-established rules for the thousands of possible abbreviated forms.

Abbreviations and figures are desirable in tables, footnotes, and bibliographies and in some kinds of special or technical writing. In ordinary writing, however, only certain abbreviations are appropriate. Figures play the same role in the writing as abbreviations do – they are space savers and give the appearance of being precise, accurate, crisp – and sometimes informal. Numbers expressed in words convey an air of approximation – or of formality. Figures stand out in the text, thus they seem to represent important information.

All the principles in this section apply to ordinary writing, which, of course, includes the kind of writing often required in college.

a) Abbreviations

In ordinary writing such as formal letters, fiction, history, and magazine articles use only well-known abbreviations: *a.m., p.m*., *Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr.,* and *St.* (*for Saint* as in *St. John, St. Mary).* Spell out *doctor* and *saint* when not followed by proper names.

Mr. W. W. Kirtley, Mrs. Ivajean Wheeler, Mr. Keith Woods,
Dr. Bell, St. Francis; the young doctor, the early life of the saint

In addition to the cited abbreviations the following abbreviations and symbols are permissible and usually desirable:

1. *Titles and degrees after proper names:*

E. R. Ames, Sr. Alice Johnson, D.V.M., Sam Jones, C.P.A.

2. *Certain words used with dates or figures:*

in 586 B.C. in A.D. 70 $14.25, £349 25.5 mpg No. 13 [OR no. 13]; EST [or E.S.T. or e.s.t]

3. *The District of Columbia and the United States used adjectivally:*

Washington, D.C. the U.S. Navy U.S. – French relations

4. *The names of organizations, agencies, countries, persons, or things usually referred to by their capitalized initials:*

U.N. (or UN); NAACP; NBC; IBM; OAS; IRS;
USMC; CIA; FDA; JFK TV; CB; DNA; GNP

The strings of letters that are pronounced as if they spelt a complete word are called acronyms:

UNISEF = from initial letters (United Nations International Children's Fund
UNESCO = from initial letters (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation).
NATO = from initial letters (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation)
NASA = from initial letters (National Aeronautics and Space Administration

5. *Certain common Latin expressions* (although the English term is usually spelled out in formal writing, as indicated in brackets below):

cf.	[compare]
e.g.	[for example]
et al.	[and others]
etc.	[and so forth]
i.e.	[that is]
vs. OR v.	[versus]

Such abbreviations can be used in bibliographies (in essays, graduation essays, dissertations, publications):

Assn	Associations
bk., bks.	book, books
c.	*circa*, 'about' (foe example, 'c.1340')
cf.	compare
ch., chs.	chapter, chapters
col., cols.	column, columns
dept.	department
diss.	dissertation
ed., eds.	edition, editions
et al.	*et alii*, 'and others'
ibid.	in the same place; in the source cited in the immediately preceding note
introd.	Introduction, introduced by
ms., mss.	manuscript, manuscripts
n.d.	no date (of publication)
no., nos.	number, numbers
n.p.	no place (of publication), no publisher
p., pp.	page, pages
pt., pts.	part, parts

rev.	revised, revised by, revision OR review, reviewed by
rpt.	reprint, reprinted
sec., secs.	section, sections
trans.	translation, translated by, translator
Univ.	University
vol., vols.	volume, volumes

Note 1: The period (full stop) is sometimes omitted after *Ms* (a shortened, combined form of *Miss* and *Mrs.).*

Note 2: Such abbreviations as *Prof., Sen., Rep., Gen.,* and *Capt.* may be used before full names or before initials and last names, but not before last names alone.

Sen. John Sherman Cooper, Prof. Vilga Rivers, Capt. P. T. Gaines.

But: Captain Gaines, Senator Cooper.

Note 3: In ordinary writing spell out names of states, countries, continents, months, days of the week, and units of measurement.

On Sunday, October 10 (October ten), we spent the night in Tulsa, Oklahoma; the next day we flew to South America.

Only four feet tall, Susan weighs ninety-one pounds.

A mile is one thousand six hundred and nine meters.

Note 4: In ordinary writing spell out *Street, Avenue, Road, Park, Mount, River, Company,* and similar words used as an essential part of proper names.

Fifth Avenue is east of Central Park.

The Ford Motor Company does not expect a strike soon.

Note 5: Avoid the use of & (for *and)* and such abbreviations as *Bros, Co,* or *Inc.,* except in copying official titles.

Harriman & Bros. Co. Textile Engineers

AT&T, Gold Bros. Lord & Taylor, G. Bell & Sons, Ltd.

Note 6: In ordinary writing spell out the words *volume, chapter,* and *page.*

The chart is on page 46 of chapter 9.

Note 7: The names of courses of study are not abbreviated in ordinary writing:

I registered for physical education and for child psychology.

Exercise 1. Strike out any form below that is not appropriate in formal writing. (In a few items two forms are appropriate.)

1. Ms. Janet Hogan; a dr. but not a saint
2. in the U.S. Senate; in the United States; in the U.S.
3. 21 mpg; on TV; in Calif, and III.
4. on Magnolia St.; on Magnolia Street
5. Washington, D.C; Charleston, S.C.
6. FBI; Federal Bureau of Investigation
7. on Aug. 15; on August 15
8. for Jr.; for John Evans, Jr.
9. e.g.; for example
10. before 6 A.M.; before six in the A.M.

b) Numbers

Using figures is the style accepted in business and technical writing, and in journalism, since the figures here usually represent important information that should stand out. Numbers spelt out in words recede into the middle distance. Still there are some recommendations how to use numbers – in words, or in figures.

Spell out numbers that can be expressed simply (like *forty-two* or *five hundred)*.

Although usage varies, writers tend to spell out numbers that can be expressed in one word or two; they regularly use figures for other numbers.

after twenty-two years	after 124 years
only thirty dollars	only $29.99
five thousand voters	5,261 voters
ten million bushels	10,402,317 bushels
over three liters	3.785 liters

Special usage regarding abbreviations and numbers

1. *Specific time of day*

6 A.M. (OR a.m.; am) OR 6:00 (a.m.; am) = six o'clock in the morning;
4:30 P.M. (OR p.m.; pm) = half-past four in the afternoon

Note that a modern tendency, not yet so widespread, is to omit the full stops in *a.m*. and *p.m*.: for example, 8 am; 3.40 pm. Some publishers omit the space between the figure and *am* (ante meridiem), to avoid the danger that the abbreviation might be read as the common verb *am*.

2. *Dates*

May 7, 1977 OR 7 May 1977 [NOT May 7th, 1977]
May sixth OR the sixth of May OR May 6 OR May 6th
the eighties OR the 1980's OR the 1980s
the twentieth century
in 1900 in 1981 – 1982 OR in 1981 – 82
from 1980 to 1985 OR 1980 – 1985 OR 1980-85 [NOT from 1980 – 1985, from 1980 – 85]

3. *Addresses*

Apartment 3C, 8 Redwood Drive, Prescott,
Arizona 86301 [OR Apt. 3c, 8 Redwood Dr.,
Prescott, AZ 86301] 10 Eighty-six Street
350 West 114 Street OR 350 West 114th Street

Note that words *street, road, drive* are sometimes shortened to St., Dr., Rd. in informal writing when they are used with the names of addresses: Old Oak Dr.; Wardcliffe Rd.; in formal writing complete forms of the words are preferable:

35 Whitechapel High Street

4. *Identification numbers*

Channel 13 Interstate 35 Henry VIII Room 10

5. *Pages and divisions of books and plays*

page 30 chapter 6 part 4
in act 3, scene 2 OR in Act III, Scene ii
Note that no article (*a, an, the*) is used in such cases.

6. *Decimals and percentages*

a 2.5 average 12% percent 0.907 metric ton

7. *Numbers in series and statistics*

two cows, five pigs, and forty-two chickens
125 feet long, 50 feet wide, and 12 feet deep
scores of 17 to 13 and 42 to 3 OR scores of 17-13 and 42-3
The members voted 99 to 23 against it.

8. *Large round numbers*

four billion dollars OR $4 billion OR $4,000,000,000
[Figures are used for emphasis only.]
12,500,000 OR 12.5 million

9. *Numbers beginning sentences are always spelt out*

Six percent of the students voted.
[NOT 6 percent of the students voted]

10. *Repeated numbers*

In legal or commercial writing spelt out numbers are usually repeated in figures in brackets to assure the correctness of the number.

The agent's fee will not exceed one hundred (100) dollars.
The agent's fee will not exceed one hundred dollars ($100).

Exercise. All items below are appropriate in formal writing. Using desirable abbreviations and figures, change each item to an acceptable shortened form.

EXAMPLES: Jude, the saint = *St. Jude;* at two o'clock that afternoon = *at 2* P.M.

1. on the fifteenth of June
2. Ernest Threadgill, a doctor
3. thirty million dollars
4. Janine Keith, a certified public accountant
5. the United Nations
6. one o'clock in the afternoon
7. by the first of December, 1985
8. at the bottom of the fifteenth page
9. the Navy of the United States
10. four hundred years before Christ
1 1. in the second scene of the first act
12. a five-year plan (from 1985 to 1990)

PUNCTUATION MARKS

THE USES OF PUNCTUATION

Present-day English punctuation is quite different from what it used to be a century ago. So, the many changes that have occurred over the years could be explained better when reviewed from the past. The following outline of the history of English punctuation may be helpful to those who find it difficult to apply a "rule of thumb" to numerous deviations they come across in English literature.

The purpose of punctuation is to make thought clear. Punctuation indicates the logical structure of sentences; very often it is the key to the clarity and meaning of what you write.

e.g, Further, smoking is not allowed. Compare: Further smoking is not allowed.

English system of punctuation developed with the spread of literacy. Before the printing press was invented, most reading was done aloud.

Manuscripts were rare, and few people were literate. Of the few who were able to read, some were often called upon to read to those who couldn't. As a result of these conditions, when punctuation came to be used in English, it served to tell the reader where to make a full stop, and where to make a slight pause.

After the invention of the printing press, with the consequent spread of literacy, punctuation marks came to be used in a somewhat different way. Gradually a system of punctuation came to be generally accepted.

In general, punctuation works in four ways: to separate, to link, to enclose, and to show omission.

Thus, a period (.) separates one sentence from another. A comma (,) separates items within a sentence. A hyphen (-) joins parts of compound words. Quotation marks (“ ”) are example of punctuation used to enclose. These marks are usually used in pairs to set off a speaker’s exact words. An apostrophe (’) is used to show the omission of a letter or letters from a word. The semicolon (;), a stronger mark of punctuation than the comma, signals a more definite break in thought – a longer pause. A colon (:) separates items and calls attention to the word, phrase, or list that follows it. The dash (–) is similar in use to the colon. However, it calls attention to the word or word group that precedes it. Parentheses enclose items that provide additional information.

Punctuation marks are divided into terminal marks (the period, the question mark, the exclamation point) and internal marks (the comma, the colon, the semicolon, the dash, the hyphen, parentheses, brackets, the slash, the ellipsis mark).

Use the period, the question mark, the exclamation point, the colon, the dash, the hyphen, parentheses, brackets, the slash, and the ellipsis mark according to standard practices.

TERMINAL PUNCTUATION

All sentences end with one of the three signs of terminal punctuation: a full stop or period (.), a question mark (?), or an exclamation mark (!)

THE PERIOD (THE FULL STOP)

The chief use of the full stop (or stop, or point, or in American English, period – a pause marking the completion of a sentence, the symbol (.) denoting this pause or following an abbreviation, or marking a decimal) is to end an 'assertion' – typically a declarative sentence (one that is not a question or an exclamation).

1. The full stop (the period) is used after declarative and mildly imperative sentences, after indirect questions.

Swallows fly south for the winter, and fly north for the summer. (declarative)

I want to know whether swallows really fly south for the winter and fly back for the summer. (indirect question)

Everyone should drive defensively. (declarative)

Learn how to drive defensively. (mild imperative)

She asks how drivers can cross the city without driving offensively. (indirect question)

"What is that?" she asked. (declarative containing a direct question)

"Get with it!" he hollered. (declarative containing an exclamation)

2. Full stops (the periods) are used after most abbreviations.

e.g., Mrs., M.A., an M.D., R.S.V.P., No. 444 p.m., a.m., etc.

In current usage the period is frequently omitted after many abbreviations:

IRS RR USAF APO ASCAP mpg mph, etc.

When in doubt about the punctuation of an abbreviation, consult a good college dictionary. Dictionaries often list a range of choices (for example, *A.W.O.L., a.w.o.L, AWOL, awol).*

Caution: When an abbreviation ending in a period appears last in the sentence, do not add a second period:

Someday I hope to be an *M.P.*

Do not use periods after shortened or clipped forms:

2nd 10th math premed gym lab psych

3. Use full stops (the periods) after numbers and letters listing points, as in an outline or list of contents:

I. The French Revolution of 1789-1793
   1. OR a. Its causes and results
   2. OR b. Its impact on European development

II. The Napoleonic Period

SECTION III. DIARIES AND LETTERS

3.1. Diaries ……

3.2. Letters ……

3.3. Letters of great English writers ….

Note that capital Roman numerals usually take full stops.

4. In British style, addresses sometime end with a full stop and have a comma at the end of each line:

The Reader's Digest Association Limited,
Pegasus House,
Blagrove,
SWINDON,
Wiltshire,
SN5 8YY.

Note that when an assertion serves as a title (as of a book or a title of a newspaper article, a chapter of the book, a title of pop group etc.), it does not take a full stop:

You Can't Go Home Again (novel by Thomas Woolf)
Tess of the d'Ubervilles (novel by Thomas Hardy)
Wedding Bells for Martyn and Yelena (a newspaper article in *Dorset Diary*)

Sometimes the authors use the words *Chapter 12* for the chapters of the novels, or they may go with the name of the chapter. e.g., *Chapter VIII Secret*. Modern writers prefer using numbers, such as 34, 48, etc. In all such cases the full stops are not used.

Caution: Do not use a comma or a period after a question or exclamation mark.

e.g., “Dad, forgive me!”

His eyes softened; and this time she caught what sounded like: “Forgive? Nonsense!” (John Galsworthy. *Swan Song*)

“Oh! Yes,” said Fleur: “What is she like?” (John Galsworthy. *Swan Song*)

5. Use periods after all abbreviations of names of months and days of the week:

Jan., Feb., Mar., Apr., Aug., Sept., Nov., Dec.
Monday – Mon.
Tuesday – Tues.
Wednesday – Wed.
Thursday – Thurs.
Friday – Fri.
Saturday – Sat.
Sunday – Sun.

THE QUESTION MARK

On the face of it, the use of the question mark is fairly straightforward – it comes at the end of a direct question:

Do you want coffee or do you want tea?
Would you like a drink?
Who started the rumour?
Did he ask who started the rumour? [The sentence as a whole is a direct question despite the indirect question at the end.]
Did you hear her ask, ‘Are you accusing me of starting the rumour?’ [double direct question followed by a single question mark].

Declarative sentences may contain direct questions:

“Who started the rumour?” he asked. [No comma follows the question mark];
He asked, “Who started the rumour?” [The question mark is used within the closing quotation mark. No period follows the question mark];
She told me – did I hear her correctly? – who started the rumour. [interpolated question].

A note of interrogation is used at the end of sentences containing questions even if the order of words is that of an affirmative sentence:

And he wants you to leave the place immediately?
You deny that you've done it?

A declarative or an imperative sentence may be converted into a question. It may not have the usual structure of a question and a complete sentence. Such questions might take the form of split-off parts of a longer sentence:

He drove to Boston? Drive to Boston?
He arrived at midnight?
She said that?
What? Yes? Over there?
Why not go there immediately?
Coffee or tea?

In these cases, the question mark reflects the tone of voice and inflection used when the sentence is spoken.

Question marks may be used between the parts of a series:

Did he rent the house? buy the house? buy the adjoining land? [Question marks cause full stops and emphasize each part]. Compare "Did he rent the house, buy the house, and buy the adjoining land?" [the whole series may have only one question mark, at the end].

Note: A question mark within parentheses is used to express the writer's uncertainty as to the correctness of the preceding word, figure, or date:

Chaucer was born in 1340 (?) and died in 1400. (In this case only the date of birth is considered doubtful).

The question mark can also be used – on its own, doubled, even trebled, or in combination with the exclamation point – to express doubt, often ironic, about characterization:

With such friends? God forgive me!
Could they really have meant that??
She married the man she so much hated before?!

The question mark is not used in an indirect question:

I asked them if they were now happily settled into their new house.

Tentative requests for permission, spoken with a rising tone at the end, take the question mark just like straightforward questions:

Would you mind very much if I smoked?

Could I have a cup of tea?

Rather more confident requests (spoken without a rising tone), expecting action, rather than a spoken reply, may either have or not have a question mark:

Would you open the door for me (?)
Would you mind picking up that piece of paper (?)

If a ‘request’ is spoken in a flat tone, like an instruction or a piece of advice, rather than a request, a question mark would be very unlikely:

Could you pass me the salt, please.
Would everyone wishing to visit the Eiffel Tower please assemble in the lobby.

A sarcastic sneer, though still with the structure of a request, does not take a question mark. An exclamation mark is more likely in such cases:

Would you mind not asking any more stupid questions!

THE EXCLAMATION MARK

Exclamation mark is the usual name in British English. In American English the usual name is exclamation point. In general, the exclamation mark is used far less today than it used to be.

An exclamation mark is often used to express a high degree of emotion, emphasis, or excitement. Its most typical uses are after interjections and similar exclamations:

Oh! Hello! Ah! Sh! Shh!!
Hurrah! Good Heavens!
“Delightful!” said Winifred.
For Pete’s sake!
Good God!
Splendid!
“Deuce it is! Goya is Jewish for Christian.
(John Galsworthy. *Swan Song*)

An exclamation mark is always used after words expressing loud noises:

Crash! Boo!

Exclamatory sentences beginning with *How, What*, or *That* end with the exclamation marks:

How charming you are!
What a surprise to see you here!
That was a delightful sight!
Wow! What a desperation pass!
“Jon! What energy!” And she caught hold of his chin. (John Galsworthy. *Swan Song*)
What a beautiful voice that man has!

An exclamation mark is also used with sentences which have the form of questions with negative implication:

If only I’d thought of that!
Aren’t you just fooling me!
A charming creature you are!
And you are telling me that!

The exclamation mark is used after imperatives or commands:

Shut up! It’s not your business.

When an exclamation mark follows a question mark it reinforces it and often adds an element of incredulity to the question:

What do I hear? You gave the job to him?!

Both exclamation and question marks may be used in interrogative sentences with exclamatory quotations:

Did she really say “Shut up!”?

Use the exclamation marks sparingly, or the reader will not take you seriously. Avoid overuse of the exclamation point. Use a comma after mild interjections, and end mildly exclamatory sentences and mild imperatives with a period.

Oh , don’t get involved.
How quiet the lake was.

Note: Do not use a comma or a period after an exclamation point.

“Get off the road!” he yelled. He yelled, “Get off the road!”

Exercise. Practice in the chief uses of the period, the question mark, and the exclamation point by composing and correctly punctuating brief sentences of the following types:

1. a direct question
2. a mild imperative

3. a declarative sentence containing a quoted exclamation
4. a declarative sentence containing an indirect question
5. a declarative sentence containing an interpolated question

(EXAMPLE: a declarative sentence containing a quoted direct question *“What does fennel taste like?”* she asked.)

INTERNAL PUNCTUATION

THE COMMA

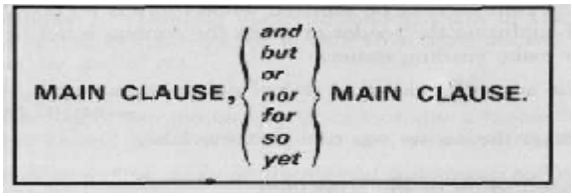
The comma is the most important, useful and usable of all punctuation marks. It can change the meaning of the whole sentence completely.

Compare:

Never ironed a rag in my life, honestly, until today. (Jack London)
Never ironed a rag in my life honestly, until today.

The most typical use of the comma is to separate main clauses linked by conjunctions such as *and, but, or, for*, and *nor* and the connectives *so* and *yet*.

Study the sentence structure of the examples that follow the pattern below.



The use of the comma is primarily determined by the structure of the sentence. The following rules cover the usual practices of the best modern writers:

Commas –

a) precede the coordinating conjunctions *and, but, or, nor, for* and the connectives so and *yet* between main clauses;

b) follow certain introductory elements;

c) separate items in a series (including coordinate adjectives);

d) set off nonrestrictive, parenthetical, and miscellaneous elements.

He had been always about to paint a masterpiece, but had never yet begun it. (O’Henry)

We are here on the planet only once, and we might as well get a feel for the place.

Serious automation remains a desirable thing for undeveloped countries, but in Japan it has become reality.

The peoples of the Sahara have never had enough fresh water, nor have they even had enough food.

Justice stands upon Power, or there is no justice.

No one watches the performance, for everybody is taking part.

They are hopeless and homeless, so he cares about them.

The comma may be omitted when there is no possibility of confusing the reader or when the comma is not needed to make reading easier.

The next night the wind shifted and the thaw began.

Either the answer was true or it was false.

In a general sense, a comma, although not called for by any of the major principles already discussed, may be needed to prevent misreading.

Your mastery of the comma will come through application of the more specific major principles (a, b, c, d) to the structure of your sentences.

CONFUSING: A few weeks before I had seen him in an off-Broadway play.

BETTER: A few weeks before, I had seen him in an off-Broadway play.

[The comma clearly indicates intonation.]

CONFUSING: Those who can pay and forego consumption of other essential goods.

BETTER: Those who can, pay and forego consumption of other essential goods.

The comma may be used (but need not) between clauses when the clauses are long, contrasted, and complete:

The castle was almost in ruins, and the place around it was a mess.

When such clauses are not linked by a conjunction, a semicolon may be used:

The castle was almost in ruins; the place around it was a mess.

Occasionally, especially when the main clauses are long or when the second main clause reveals a striking contrast, a semicolon is used instead of the usual comma.

Unfortunately, some sportsmen think that participating is everything; but I would be foolish to believe that. Winning is important, I think.

When one of the main clauses contains commas, a semicolon is often preferred. Sharply dividing the main clauses contributes to readability.

> Miss Temple had looked down when he first began to speak to her; but she now gazed straight before her, and her face, naturally pale as marble, appeared to be assuming also the coldness and fixity of that material; especially her mouth, closed as if it would have required a sculptor's chisel to open it, and her brow settled gradually into petrified severity. (Ch. Bronte)
>
> Temperature must be taken correctly; so, if you're taking your temperature, you'll have not to shake down the readings first**.**

Commas are also used to indicate words left off:

> They had been driving through rain-drenched jungle for the last twenty minutes, and had seen nothing since the apatosaurs crossed the road. (Michael Crichton, *Jurassic Park*). Here the word *they* had been left off in the second main clause.

The comma is used to separate adverb clauses from main clauses. Adverb clauses begin with such subordinators as *after, although, as, as far as, as long as, as soon as, because, before, if, inasmuch as, insofar as, lest, no matter how, now that, once, provided, since, supposing, though, unless, until, when, whenever, where, wherever, whether or not, while.*

> When Americans are not happy, they feel guilty.
> When I am tired after a hard day's work, I sit down and relax.

A writer may omit the comma after an introductory adverb clause, especially when the clause is short, if the omission does not make for difficult reading:

> When we talk to people we sometimes mean something quite different from what we say.

Note 2: When the adverb clause *follows* the main clause, there is usually no pause and no need for a comma.

> She moved as if she owned the earth and conferred grace upon it. (James A. Michener)

Adverb clauses in this position, however, may be preceded by a comma if they are loosely connected with the rest of the sentence, especially if the subordinating conjunction seems equivalent to a coordinating conjunction.

Marine life is concentrated in about 4 percent of the ocean's total body of water, whereas roughly 96 percent is just about as poor in life as is a desert ashore. (Thor Heyerdahl)

Adjective clauses and phrases are classified as nonrestrictive (parenthetical) or restrictive (not parenthetical).

Commas are used to set off (to separate) non-essential, nonrestrictive clauses and phrases and other parenthetical and miscellaneous elements, such as transitional expressions, items in dates, words used in direct address, and so on. Restrictive clauses and phrases are not set off by commas.

To set off a word or a word group with commas, use two commas unless the element is placed at the beginning of the sentence or at the end:

Darwin's *Origin of Species,* as Robert Ardrey points out, explains everything except the origin of species.

CAUTION: When two commas are needed to set off an element, do not forget one of the commas.

An experienced driver, generally speaking,
does not fear the open road.

Nonrestrictive clauses and phrases are informative but not essential to the meaning of the main clause. They describe but do not identify, and may be omitted. Such modifiers are parenthetical and are set off by commas.

Solar energy, *which is safe, renewable, environmentally benign*, has serious disadvantages.

Huge cranes, *delicate as a dinosaur's head*, moved over the street

[*COMPARE*: "Huge cranes, *which looked as delicate as a dinosaur's head*, moved over the street."]

Restrictive clauses and phrases follow and limit the words they modify. They are essential to the meaning of the main clause and are not set off by commas.

We punish those who hurt us by making them feel guilty.

Sometimes a clause or phrase may be either nonrestrictive or restrictive. The writer signifies the meaning by using or by omitting commas.

NONRESTRICTIVE: He spent hours nursing the Indian guides, who were sick with malaria. [He cared for all the Indian guides. They were all sick with malaria.]

RESTRICTIVE: He spent hours nursing the Indian guides who were sick with malaria. [Some of the Indian guides were sick with malaria. He cared only for the sick ones.]

Exercise. Use commas to set off nonrestrictive clauses and phrases in the following sentences. Put a checkmark after any sentence that needs no further punctuation.

1. Red snapper fried in butter is better than baked red snapper.
2. The smoke that filled the room is now gone.
3. My hometown which no one around here has ever heard of is **a** little place called Crossroads.
4. All players who broke the rules will sit on the bench next Saturday.
5. Martha Thompson sitting near the window smiled knowingly.
6. The coach chewing gum and clapping his hands is Teddy.
7. Venice which he visited next was torn by rival factions.
8. Venice is a city he likes to visit.
9. I will interview Mary Smith who manages the bank.
10. I will interview the Mary Smith who manages the bank.

The comma is used before or after the main clause when there are introductory elements such as long phrases, transitional expressions, interjections, and an introductory *yes* or *no.* The longer the expression, the more important the comma is.

Interjections, transitional expressions (such as *for example, in fact, on the other hand, in the second place),* and an introductory *yes* or *no* are generally considered parenthetical. When used as introductory elements, they are ordinarily followed by commas:

By the way, I heard that it might be published in a science magazine.
As a matter of fact, I won't be able to finish it until tomorrow afternoon.
It's not for sure yet, in any case.
Ah, I love you still.
Yes, that's what I mean.

Introductory phrases containing a gerund, a participle, or an infinitive, even though short, must often be followed by a comma to prevent misreading.

Before leaving, the soldiers demolished the fort.
Because of his effort to escape, his punishment was increased.

Short introductory prepositional phrases, except when they are distinctly parenthetical expressions (such as *in fact* or *for example),* are usually not followed by a comma.

The term *parenthetical* is correctly applied to all nonrestrictive elements such as *however, first of all, in fact, to summarize,* or *that is* and to such expressions (often called interrupters) as / *believe* or *experts argue.*

Finally, banks devise means of protecting the money.
Language, **then,** sets the tone of our society.
Many farmers, **for example**, would like direct access to the detailed forecast maps. **Well,** global peace may be a dream, [mild interjection]. **Animal lovers**, write letters of protest. [direct address]
Science, at its best, is unifying.

The main clauses with 'proportional' expressions such as *the more the better, the more the merrier, the more the less, the higher the lower,* etc., are separated by comma when they are expanded by additional elements:

The harder they work, the less money they get.
He higher the quality, the higher the price is.
The higher the price, the worse the quality sometimes is.

The commas are used to separate the so-called tag questions:

You haven't been waiting for me too long, have you?
They don't open at eight, do they? No, they don't.
This is a nice desk lamp, isn't it? Yes, it is.

The comma is used with detached elements of the sentence (loose oppositions, adverbial modifiers, detached attributes, or objects):

He, Martin, was a better man than that fellow. (J.London)
Mr. Micawber sat in his elbow-chair, with his elbows raised. (Dickens)
She was a very little girl, with eyes and hair that kept on growing after she had stopped and that always looked as if they were saying: "Goodness me! Why didn't you keep up with us?" (O'Henry)
There are some truths, cold, bitter, tainting truths. (Dickens)

Use the comma to set off an appositive – a phrase that helps to explain the subject of a sentence.

Martyn, the produce manager, gave detailed information.
The Great Sphinks, a half-lion, half-man stone,
is one of the attractive sights of the Egyptian pyramids.

The comma is used to separate direct address:

"But, Henry, these are real dinosaurs. You said so yourself". (Michael Crichton)

"Excuse me, Mr. Skidder", said Mrs. Parker, with her demon's smile at his pale looks. (O'Henry)

"Well, boys", says she after a bit, 'what is it?' (O'Henry)

The use of the comma ordinarily indicates a pause and a variation in voice pitch. Just as pauses and variations in voice pitch help to convey the meaning of spoken sentences, commas help to clarify the meaning of written sentences.

When the lightning struck, James Harvey fainted.
When the lightning struck James, Harvey fainted.

The sound of a sentence can serve as a guide in using commas.

But many times sound is not a dependable guide.

The comma separates adverbial connectors such as *however, consequently, moreover, furthermore, in addition, hence*, etc.:

One day, however, very shortly after he had connected himself with the Green – Davidson, he had come in rather earlier than usual in the afternoon and found his mother bending over a letter which evidently had just arrived and which appeared to interest her greatly. (Dreiser)

The comma is almost always used before or after short 'comment clauses' as *you know, you see, you understand, you realise*, etc.:

I was just visiting, you see.
It is not that simple, you know.

If such 'comment clauses' appear in the middle of the sentence they are taken in commas:

Your story, you know, showed such breadth, and vigour, such maturity and depth of thought. (J. London)

The comma is also used:

- between the name of a person and a following title or honour:

Henry Smith, BA (MA, PhD); Muriel Spark, OBE; Barak Obama, President of the United States

● between the name of a street and the name of a town when they come in a line. (When they are written on separate lines, the comma may be left out:

62 Chickerell Road, Weymouth, England
9 Old Oak Drive, Simsbury, the USA

● between the name of a town and the name of a state, county, or country:

Weymouth, Dorset
Santa Barbara, California
Cambridge, Massachusetts; NE, the USA
Cambridge, Ontario, South Canada

● in dates to separate day, month, and year:

Sunday, August 16th, 2009

● in non-business letters after the 'salutation' (Dear Trevor, Dear Jessica, Dear friend, Dear Mr. Wheeler,), and after the 'complementary close' (Affectionately yours,: With all my love,; Sincerely yours,; Yours sincerely, etc.). In American English, however, the salutation of a business letter takes a colon (Dear Sirs:).

Use commas to separate items in a series of homogeneous members (including coordinate adjectives, words, phrases and clauses:

The punctuation of a series depends on its form:

The air was *raw, dank, gray,* [*a, b, c]*
The air was *raw, dank,* and *gray,* [*a, b,* and c]
The air was *raw* and *dank* and *gray,* [*a* and *b* and c]

Em'ly, indeed, said little all the evening; but she looked, and listened, and her face got animated, and she was charming. (Dickens)

A miner's life is a long series of dangers, wanderings, searchings, booms, and blow-outs.

He's unpredictable – liberal today, conservative tomorrow, reactionary next week.

School rules, school duties, school habits and notions, and voices, and faces, and phrases, and costumes, and preferences, and antipathies: such was what I knew of existence. (Ch. Bronte)

The comma before the conjunction may be omitted in the series *a, b, and c* if there is no danger of misreading:

Women still account for a very small percentage of the nation's lawyers, businessmen, politicians and heads of administrations.

Note 1: Expressions such as *also, too, of course, perhaps, at least, therefore,* and *likewise,* when they cause little or no pause in reading, are frequently not set off by commas.

He also wanted a better understanding.

Note 2: With direct quotations, such expressions as *he said, she asked, I replied,* and *we shouted* are set off by commas. He said, “My opinion is really different.” “My opinion,” he said, “is really different.” “My opinion is really different,” he said.

Exercise 1. **L**ink the sentences in the items below with an appropriate *and, but, or, nor, for, so,* or *yet.*

EXAMPLE: We cannot win the battle. We cannot afford to lose it. *We cannot win the battle, nor can we afford to lose it.*

1. A crisis strikes. Another presidential fact-finding committee is born.
2. The new leash law did not put all dogs behind bars. It did not make the streets safe for cats.
3. Motorists may admit their guilt and pay a fine immediately. They may choose to appear in court within thirty days and plead not guilty.
4. They decided not to take a vacation. They needed the money to remodel their kitchen.
5. The band leader can sing and dance and whistle. She cannot play the trombone.

Exercise 2. **I**nsert commas before connectives linking main clauses in the sentences below. (Remember that not all coordinating conjunctions link main clauses, and that *but, for, so,* and *yet* do not always function as coordinating conjunctions).

1. The students had finished taking the various tests and answering the long questionnaires and they had gone to lunch.
2. There are now special shoes for someone to fill for Bob has resigned and is going to business school.
3. I decided to withdraw from that eight-o'clock class so that I could sleep later but I plan to enroll again for the same class in January.
4. We had seen the stage play and the movie and the College Players’ performance was the best of all.
5. Everyone in our group was invited to the party but Gary and Irene decided to go to the hockey game.

Exercise 3. In sentences 1-4 and 7-8 below, find the main clause and identify the preceding element as an adverb clause or as a phrase. Then determine whether or not to use a comma after the introductory element.

1. If you walk into any bookstore these days you will notice a relatively new category of books prominently displayed.
2. For example you will see titles like *Looking Out for Number One, How to Increase Your Personal Effectiveness, How to Deal with Almost Anything.*
3. In my opinion their message is the same: "Read me, enjoy me, and improve yourself."
4. With about as much subtlety as a sledgehammer these titles imply that there are short cuts to nearly anything your heart desires.
5. Do you lack confidence?
6. Do you crave success, riches, recognition?
7. If you do buy this book –or that book –and read it.
8. In a matter of hours you will be on your way.
9. The life you change will be your own.

Exercise 4. Using commas as needed, supply coordinate adjectives to modify any six of the following twelve word groups.

EXAMPLE: metric system *the familiar, sensible metric system*

1. apple pie
2. social climbers
3. electronic music
4. pop art
5. minimum wage
6. Baltimore oriole
7. rhetorical question
8. apartment buildings
9. major oil companies
10. blue cheese

Exercise 5. Combine each pair of sentences by reducing the second sentence to an appositive or to a contrasted element set off by commas. Insert commas where needed to set off items in dates or addresses.

EXAMPLES: Michael Roger was born on January 7 1982 in Alabama. He is my only son. *Michael Roger, my only son, was born on January* 7, *1982, in Alabama.* Carla’s social security number is 452-25-7648. It is not 152-25-7648. *Carla’s social security number is 452-25-7648, not 152-25- 7648.*

1. The General Sherman Tree is about 270 feet tall. It is a giant sequoia in California.
2. Those are pill bugs. They are not insects.
3. On April 1 1980 his divorced wife married his lawyer. His lawyer was Bill Wynne.

4. The publisher’s address is 757 Third Avenue New York New York 10017. It is not 757 Madison Avenue.

5. We moved to Taos New Mexico on 30 September 1978. New Mexico is one of the popular sun states.

Exercise 6. All commas in the following paragraphs are correctly used. Explain the reason for each comma.

1. Conflicts would not be restricted to conventional warfare.

2. True, we do have a treaty forbidding the use of “weapons of mass destruction” in outer space.

3. However, the treaty does not define “weapons of mass destruction,” and although it does require inspection of all installations on celestial bodies, it says nothing about stations or space colonies in orbit.

4. In any case, the moral force of this treaty, all by itself, is hardly likely to deter the greedy ones, the bullies, the maniacs, the suicidal types, or the various champions of human ‘progress,’ ‘liberation,’ or ‘rejuvenation.’

5. Every colony, as well as the Earth itself, would be in danger from outer space at all times.

6. No matter how many problems we may have today, we can still look at the stars with fair assurance that they constitute no immediate threat to us.

7. But with millions of space colonies roaming the solar system, life could degenerate into a series of preparations for and recoveries from attacks – an updated version of the life-style of centuries past when raids of the Normans, Berbers and other seafaring people depopulated Europe's coastline – except that this time the weaponry would be a great deal more destructive.

Exercise 7. Insert commas where needed in the following sentences (selected and adapted from the works of modern writers). Be prepared to explain the reason for each comma used. Also be prepared to point out where optional commas might be placed as a matter of stylistic preference.

1. Police action in arresting drunks will never prevent drunkenness nor can it cure an alcoholic.

2. Fifty years ago *Hazel Beverly Marian Frances* and *Shirley* were all perfectly acceptable boys’ names.

3. Thus the ocean floors far from being the oldest features on earth were relatively young.

4. When language does change the alteration first occurs in the spoken not the written form.

5. Hooper said “Look Chief you can’t go off half-cocked looking for vengeance against a fish. That shark isn’t evil.” (Peter Benchley, *Jaws*)

6. Incidentally supporting the tobacco habit is very expensive some adults having been known to sacrifice much-needed family grocery money for a carton of cigarettes.

7. The crowd’s answer was polite almost dainty applause the kind that has a lot of coughing at the end instead of a release of spirit.

8. Hard as it is for many of us to believe women are not really superior to men in intelligence or humanity – they are only equal.

9. The earth breathes in a certain sense.

10. December is the most violent month the time of murder
robbery assault suicide and Christmas.

11. The temptation in describing a film like this one is to string together several adjectives –witless ugly brutal insensate stupid.

12. As almost everyone outside Texas understands Alaska is a
very big place

13. He disliked being categorized no matter what the category.

14. If there was ever an American boy who was saved by sports
it was I.

15. Theirs has been described as a love/hate relationship smooth and pliable when they are of a mind and roof-shaking when they are not.

THE SEMICOLON

A stronger mark of punctuation than the comma, the semicolon is sometimes called a weak period.

If you can distinguish between main and subordinate clauses and between phrases and clauses, you should have little trouble using the semicolon. As you study the rules in this section, notice that the semicolon is used *only* between closely related coordinate elements.

The most characteristic use of the semicolon is to separate clauses that might have been two different sentences, but are closely connected in thought or meaning:

Some people love dogs; other people hate them.
We train our dogs; as a result, they can do tricks.
A dog is more than a pet; a dog is a friend.

The use of the semicolon between two independent clauses serves to emphasize or add weight to the second clause:

The dark is not mysterious; it is merely dark.

No person is born intelligent; intelligence and politeness must be taught.

Note that the semicolon is not followed by a capital letter.

Observe that each main clause could be written as a separate sentence:

A close friend of mine lived on a farm ; I assumed he would always be there.

A close friend of mine lived on a farm. I assumed he would always be there.

A semicolon is handy when we unite two sentences which have a cause-effect relationship:

Dogs are animals; nevertheless, they are intelligent.

A semicolon is especially handy when it comes to linking clauses that already contain commas:

Emily, indeed, said little all the evening; but she looked, and listened, and her face got animated, and she was charming. (Dickens)

Note that semicolon and conjunction are not mutually exclusive when two coordinate clauses (main clauses) are linked. They can be present in formal style. Though, in such cases a comma or no punctuations at all would be more likely:

The night was dark; and the little boy was extremely frightened.

The clauses linked by a semicolon can often be punctuated in other ways: they can be separate sentences, may be linked by a comma, or by a colon if there is a logical relation between the clauses, or if they have similar structures:

The night was dark. The little boy was extremely frightened.

The night was dark, and the little boy was extremely frightened.

The night was dark: the little boy was extremely frightened.

Use the semicolon (a) between main clauses not linked by *and, but, or, nor, for, so,* or *yet* and (b) between coordinate elements containing commas.

Do not use the semicolon between parts of unequal grammatical rank.

Be sure to use a semicolon before conjunctive adverbs *{however, therefore, nevertheless, moreover, in addition, on the other hand, besides,*

then, and so on) and transitional phrases *(for example, on the contrary, that is* and so on) when these adverbial connectives are placed between main clauses. Such introductory elements are usually followed by a comma:

> Our team fought hard; however, we lost the game.
>
> Scientists are working hard to conserve energy*; nevertheless,* Ukraine still faces a critical shortage of energy resources.
>
> We no longer confide in each other; in fact, there are many things I could not mention to her. (Saul Bellow)
>
> They have not yet been molded by experience; therefore, the immediate moment makes a great impression on them because that is all they know. (William J. Harris)

The comma is generally omitted after an adverbial connective when the connective is not considered parenthetical or when the comma is not needed to prevent misreading or to mark intonation:

> New Orleans is unique among American cities; indeed in many ways it is scarcely American.

If introductory elements are omitted, the semicolon should be replaced by a colon:

> Scientists are working hard to conserve energy: Ukraine still faces a critical shortage of energy resources.

In spoken language our voice reflects the differences in punctuation. Read the sentences below and feel the difference in pronunciation.

> The letters did not arrive until Thursday, although I had mailed them early Monday morning. The letters did not arrive until Thursday; however, I had mailed them early Monday morning.

CAUTION: Do not overwork the semicolon. Often it is better to revise compound sentences according to the principles of subordination.

EXCEPTIONS:

1. A semicolon (instead of the usual comma) may precede *and, but, or, nor, for, so,* and *yet* when a main clause has internal commas or when the writer wishes to make a sharp division of the two main clauses:

> I was, if anything, disintegrated; and I was puzzled. (William Golding)
>
> Food is obviously necessary for survival; so you might pay more for it than you would for almost anything else.

2. Sometimes a comma (instead of the usual semicolon) separates short main clauses like those below:

> He isn't funny, he isn't romantic, he is neither ordinary nor exceptional.

3. A colon (instead of the usual semicolon) appears between main clauses when the second main clause explains or amplifies the first:

This type of construction is like building a house of cards or of children's blocks: slabs of stone are set upright and other slabs are laid across the uprights as capstones.

Exercise 1. Change each of the following items to conform to pattern**,** as shown in the examples below.

EXAMPLES:

An engagement is not a marriage. Nor is a family quarrel a broken home.

An engagement is not a marriage; a family quarrel is not a broken home.

All members of my family save things they will never use.

My sister, for example, saves old calendars and bent or rusty nails.

All members of my family save things they will never use; for example, my sister saves old calendars and bent or rusty nails.

1. The scientists did not accept this theory. Nor did they ridicule it.
2. Popular TV comedy series occasionally have spin-offs. From *The Mary Tyler Moore Show,* for instance, there came *Rhoda, Lou Grant,* and *Too Close for Comfort.*
3. He took a course in the art of self-defense. But later, during a class demonstration, he broke his wrist.
4. Tony himself cut and polished the turquoise. And it is a beauty.
5. The team kept on losing. And, as a result, the morale of the whole school was low.

The semicolon separates a series of items which themselves contain commas so that the main divisions of the series can be clearly distinguished at first glance:

> A board is elected of the following three categories of specialists: for example, a lawyer of good repute; a professor of art, literature, or one of the humanities; and a social worker, or a psychologist.

Note: Semicolons may emphatically divide a series of items that do not contain internal punctuation – especially a series of main clauses.

Among the members of the board there are writers; there are critics; and there are teachers.

A semicolon is not used between parts of unequal grammatical rank, such as a clause and a phrase or a main clause and a subordinate clause. In such cases a comma or a colon can be used:

Lucy has three topics of conversation: her courses, her career, and her travels.

If this report is true, then we should act carefully.

We heard about the final decision, which really surprised us immensely.

Exercise 2. Find the semicolons used between parts of unequal rank and substitute a correct mark of punctuation. Do not change properly placed semicolons.

1. Don went jogging one afternoon; never returning; then he was numbered among the tens of thousands who disappear every year.
2. Although the educational TV channel is sometimes a bore; at least tedious ads do not interrupt the programs.
3. I have two main pet peeves; jokes that are pointless and animals that get on furniture.
4. Before the derby she will take the motor apart and overhaul it; her supervisor will be an ace mechanic; her sister Alicia.
5. The tormented bull lowered his head in readiness for another charge; the one-sided contest not being over yet.

Exercise 3. Compose four sentences to illustrate various uses of the semicolon.

Exercise 4. Punctuate sentences 1 – 10 appropriately.

1. Many students were unhappy in the early 1980s for draft registration threatened their future plans.
2. Dr. Felipe a visiting professor from Kenya says that often it is not fun to learn but that it is always fun to know.
3. The stalls of the open market along the wharf were filled with tray after tray of glassy-eyed fish slender stalks of pink rhubarb mounds of home-grown tomatoes and jars of bronze honey.
4. Two or three scrawny mangy-looking hounds lay sprawled in the shade of the cabin.

5. While Diana was unpacking the cooking gear and Grace was chopping firewood I began to put up our shelter.

6. Slamming the door of his four-wheel drive to cut short the argument with his wife Jerry grabbed the grocery list from her and stalked into the supermarket.

7. Still in high school we had to memorize dates and facts such as 1066 the Battle of Hastings 1914-1918 World War I 1939-1945 World War II and 1969 the first moon landing.

8. The dream home that they often talk about is a retreat in the Rockies to tell the truth however they seem perfectly happy in their mobile home on the outskirts of Kansas City.

9. The criminal was asking for mercy his victim was pleading for justice.

10. Chris and I felt that our blustery argument would never end however my weather-watching roommate reminded us that thunderstorms are usually of short duration.

THE COLON

The colon is used as a formal introducer to call attention to what follows and as a mark of separation in scriptural and time references and in certain titles. Its correct use is to introduce material that explains, amplifies, or interprets what precedes it. The colon may separate two main clauses or sentences when the second explains or amplifies the first:

They are tired: they didn't sleep last night.
They didn't sleep well: they must be tired.

Neither of the two parts of such sentences (what precedes a colon, or what follows it, need not be a complete sentence. In both cases the colon functions rather like such expressions as *that is* or *namely*.

The part of a sentence which follows the colon should not start with a capital letter. It takes the capital letter only if the writer wants to give special emphasis or if what follows is written with the capital letter, like proper name, for example:

One thing only was equivalent in value to a man: another man.
Alongside with Childe Harold we can consider another character: Pushkin's Eugene Onegin.
The sorrow was laced with violence: In the first week of demolition, vandals struck every night.

A colon may also be used between expressions of two or more parallel (or contrasting) structures or meanings:

Man proposes: God disposes.
To the left, rocky mountains: to the right, a desert.

Though today the writers may replace the colon by a semicolon, still the colon is more preferable.

The colon is acceptable if we use it to introduce a number of items listed separately:

The chapter includes:

a) introduction
b) analysis of theoretical sources
c) description of methods used in the work
d) list of references

Theories which try to explain the secret of fire walking fall into three categories: physical, psychological, and religious.

The colon appears in the works of play writers by which they introduce a quotation after the identification of the speaker (the character of a play). Quotation marks are not used here:

Apemantus: Beast!
Timon: Slave!
Apemantus: Toad!
(Shakespeare, *Timon of Athens*)

Marlow: Daughter! – This lady your daughter?
Hardcastle: Yes, Sir, my only daughter: my Kate; whose else should she be?
Marlow: Oh, the devil!
Miss Hardcastle: Yes, Sir, that very identical tall squinting lady you were pleased to take me for (courtesying); she that you addressed as the mild, modest, sentimental man of gravity, and the bold forward agreeable Rattle of the ladies' club Ha! ha! ha!
(Goldsmith, *She Stoops to Conquer*)

The full stop (the period) may evenly be used in the text of a play instead of a colon:

Horatio. Not a jot more, my lord.
Hamlet. Is not parchment made of sheep-skins?

Horatio. Ay, my lord, And of calf-skins too.

(Shakespeare, Hamlet, *Prince of Denmark*)

The colon may direct attention to an explanation or summary, an appositive, a series, or a quotation, especially in published accounts of official proceedings, speeches, and so on, to introduce a long passage in direct speech:

Opening the meeting, the Mayor said: (then follows the report of the speech).

The colon may also be used when introducing a long quotation, especially when it is not heralded directly by such words as *asked, said, replied, remarked* or the like.

The colon may be used after a formal salutation followed by a message:

Ladies and gentlemen: It gives me great pleasure to welcome such respectable delegations of our forum.

Note: In salutations, mottoes, slogans, preceded by a colon, the first word is usually capitalized.

The colon is used in bibliographical references after the place of publication followed by the name of the publisher:

London: Academia Press

The colon is used in expressions of time in American English, while in British English the period would normally be used:

American English: 12:30 pm; British English: 12.30 pm

At 2:15 A.M. the phone rang.

The colon may be used in writing abbreviated dates. There are three types of writing abbreviated dates: 3.4.04; 3/4/04; 3:4:04. As you see, one variant is with the colon. Care should be taken when reading these dates. They are read differently in British English and in American English. In the USA these formulas would refer to 4 March 2004, while in Britain they refer to 3 April 2004.

A colon is used to indicate a ratio or proportion, either in general context, or, especially in mathematics:

The ratio of success to failure was 1:4.

Mix the herbals in the proportions 2:5:7.

The colon is used after various headings in written official correspondence:

To: Director General
Subject: Shipment of goods

Differences exist in the salutation of a business and of a friendly letter in American English: in the former the colon is used while in the latter salutation is followed by a comma. In British English in all cases a comma is used:

American English: Dear Sirs:	Dear Dick and Ivajean,
British English: Dear Sirs,	Dear Keith and Lynette,

Note: After the colon, quoted sentences regularly begin with a capital, but other sentences may begin with either a capital letter or a lower-case letter, although the latter is generally preferred.

The colon is generally used between figures in scriptural references **(**Isaiah 16:23-27; The text of the sermon was Matthew 6:10), and between titles and subtitles:

I had just read *On Being Funny*: *Woody Allen and Comedy* by Eric Lax.
Walden: or Life in the Woods by Henry David Thoreau.

(3) Do not use superfluous colons.

As a rule, superfluous or unnecessary colons interrupt the sentence base. Sometimes they follow *such as.*

SUPERFLUOUS: These handicapped people can repair almost anything, such as: old lawnmowers, broken clocks, frayed wires, cracked vases.

REVISED: These handicapped people can repair almost anything, such as old lawnmowers, broken clocks, frayed wires, cracked vases, [colon omitted] OR These handicapped people can repair almost anything: old lawnmowers, broken clocks, frayed wires, cracked vases, *[such as* omitted]

SUPERFLUOUS: The six survivors were: one man, two women, and three children.

REVISED: The six survivors were one man, two women, and three children. OR: There were six survivors: one man, two women, and three children.

OR: The six survivors were as follows: one man, two women, and three children. [Although *survivors* is plural, *as follows* (not *as follow)* is standard usage].

Exercise 1. Punctuate the following sentences by adding colons. Put a checkmark after any sentence that needs no change.

1. At 1230 A.M. he was still repeating his favorite quotation “TV is the opiate of the people”.
2. The downtown streets are narrow, rough, and junky.
3. Even people in rural areas were not safe many criminals had left the cities and the suburbs.
4. During our tour of the library, our guide recommended that we find one of the following periodicals *Intellect, Smithsonian, Commentary,* or *The Chronicle of Higher Education.*
5. All their thoughts were centered on equal pay for equal work.

Exercise 2. Decide whether to use a colon or a semicolon between the main clauses of the following sentences.

1. These laws all have the same purpose they protect us from ourselves.
2. Some of these laws have an obvious purpose others seem senseless.
3. Few things in life are certain perhaps we could name them all on one hand.
4. One thing is certain the future looks bright.

THE APOSTROPHE

Apostrophes are chiefly used to indicate possession (the possessive case of nouns and indefinite pronouns) and other kinds of relationship; to mark omissions in contracted words or numerals; and to form certain plurals.

The apostrophe comes before the *s* if the noun is singular or after the *s* if that *s* serves to make the noun plural: *teacher’s opinion, Irene’s mastery, Svitlana’s smile, Mr. Brown’s job, the doctor’s office; the girls’ intentions, the judges’s opinions, the Snopes’ decay, Dr. Saunders’s office.*

For singular nouns and indefinite pronouns, add the apostrophe and *s.*

Laura's idea	a week's work	a dime's worth
anyone's guess	somebody's coat	one's choices

Option: If a singular noun ends in *s,* add the apostrophe and *s (‘s),* or only the apostrophe.

Keats's poetry or *Keats'* poetry; a *waitress's* tips or a *waitress'* tips

The possessive (or genitive) case shows ownership or a comparable relationship: *Soldier’s Pay* (novel by William Faulkner), *Robert’s* car, two

weeks' pay. The possessive case of nouns and of indefinite pronouns may be indicated by the use of *'s* (or by the apostrophe alone) or by an of-phrase.

Everybody's friend OR the friend of everybody
the students' laughter OR the laughter of students

Occasionally, the possessive is indicated by the use of both an *of-* phrase and *'s:*

that pie of Al's [a double possessive]

COMPARE. the description of Jean [Jean is described.]
the description of Jean's [Jean did the describing.]

A possessive noun or pronoun may be related to a word (or word group) that precedes it or that is clearly implied:

I stayed at my *sister's* for a week. (sister's place)

When a singular word ends in *s,* many writers use the apostrophe and *s* to reflect pronunciation, but they prefer to use only the apostrophe when the word following begins with an *s* or a *z* sound.

Chris's enthusiasm BUT Chris' zeal
the hostess's idea BUT for the hostess' sake

When a plural noun ends in *s,* add only the apostrophe. For plurals not ending in *s,* add the apostrophe and *s.*

boys' shoes (shoes for *boys),* two dollars' worth babies' toes (toes of *babies),* the Joneses' reunion

BUT: men's clothing, women's job, children's rights

For compounds or word groups, add the apostrophe and *s* only to the last word.

my sister-in-law's shop, someone else's turn
the Secretary of Labor's idea, George Heming, Jr.'s reply

To indicate individual ownership, add the apostrophe and *s* to each name.

Al's and Sue's cars [Note that *cars* is plural.] the doctor's and the dentist's offices

Note: To indicate joint ownership, add the apostrophe and *s* only to the last name or to each name.

Al and Sue's car OR Al's and Sue's car

<u>VARIATION:</u>

The use of the apostrophe or the possessive form varies with proper names (organizations, geographical designations, and so on).

Devil's Island Devils Tower Devil Mountain

Exercise 1. Change the modifier after the noun to a possessive form before the noun, following the pattern of the examples.

EXAMPLES: the laughter of the crowd *the crowd's laughter;*
suggestions made by James *James's suggestions* OR *James' suggestions*

1. the tape decks belonging to James	6. the boat bought by the Woods
2. the strategy that Doris uses	7. worth a quarter
3. ideas of somebody else	8. the voices of Betty and Jonny
4. shoes for women	9. novels by Dickens
5. the efforts of the editor-in-chief	10. a ballad written by Wordsworth and Coleridge

Use an apostrophe to mark omissions in contracted words or numerals.

I'm, it's (do not confuse it with the pronoun *its*), who's (do not confuse it with pronoun *whose*), you're, aren't, isn't, she's, we're, we'll, he'll, didn't, they're, there's, o'clock [reduction of "of the clock"]
Its motor is small, [the motor *of it*] *It's* a small motor.
[*It is* a small motor.]

CAUTION: Do not use the apostrophe with the pronouns *his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs,* or *whose.*

His parents are businessmen; *ours* are farmers.
A friend of *mine* knows a cousin of *yours.*

Note: Contractions, as a rule, are avoided in formal writing; but they are common (and often preferable) both in informal writing and in dialogue.

Informal writing:

With all the books he reads how come the guy is so illiterate? And why do people just naturally assume that you'll know what they're talking about? No, I don't know, and nobody knows. The planets don't, the stars don't, infinite space doesn't. (Saul Bellow)

Dialogue:

"Well, Curley's pretty handy," the swamper said skeptically. "Never did seem right to me. S'pose Curley jumps a big guy an' licks him. Ever'body says what a game guy Curley is." (John Steinbeck)

The apostrophe and *s* are used to form the plural of lower case letters and of abbreviations followed by periods. The use of apostrophe and *s* to

form the plural of capital letters, of symbols, of abbreviations not followed by periods, and of words referred to as words help to prevent confusion.

His *a'* s look like *o'* s. [Note that 's is not italicized (underlined)
Over half of the Ph.D.'s are looking for jobs in the time of recession.
Her *p'* s are illegible, and her *miss's* sound as *mess's.*
Either '*s* or *s* may be used to form such plurals as the following:

the 1900's OR the 1900s	his 7's OR his 7s
two B's OR two Bs	her *and's* OR her *and*s

Exercise 2. Copy the paragraph below, and make all the corrections that are necessary. Put periods, capitalize the letters, and use apostrophes for contractions and possessives.

ruth bennet works in mr browns pharmacy she is mr browns helper sometimes a customer wants a prescription that isn't ruths job shes a pharmacists helper she isn't a doctor sometimes an aspirin will help the customers headache its ruths job to give out aspirin

Exercise 3. Insert apostrophes where needed in the following sentences. Put a checkmark after any sentence that needs no change in punctuation.

1. Many students attitudes changed completely in the mid-1970s.
2. Some students dropped these courses because of the stiff requirements.
3. Those newsstands sell Marian Rosss homemade candy.
4. Theyre not interested in hockey; its roughness repels them.
5: Snapshots of everyone in the class of 84 cover Jerrys bulletin board.
6. "Its just one C.P.A.s opinion, isnt it?" Otis commented.
7. Is that dog yours or theirs?
8. There are two *es* and two *ds* in Hildegardes name, but not any *us*.
9. The computer confused my account with somebody elses.
10. Marry often quotes her Granddads favorite expression: "Everybodys useful, but nobodys indispensable!"
11. Its an expensive book, but its cover came unglued.
12. Theres nothing wrong with her attitude or idea, but theirs is not like hers.

QUOTATION MARKS

When we tell a story, we may sometimes tell the exact words that a person said. When quoting from other texts or speeches the basic duty is to reproduce that text accurately. We put quotation marks around these words.

The main purpose of quotation marks (informal names also are *quote marks* or *quotes*, and *inverted commas*) is to enclose in the text material that is brought into it from outside, such as quotations from books, or works by other people.

Quotation marks are used to set off all direct quotations, some titles, and words used in a special sense.

Quotations are usually presented by words *said, asked, replied* and *wrote* that are most neutral presentation verbs. In spoken language the writers use other verbs which characterize the speaker, his emotional state and attitude towards a person to whom the words are directed, such as *murmured, sighed, cried, called out, shouted, whispered, apologized, responded, smiled, protested, grinned, snapped, laughed,* etc. Such presentational materials are more frequent after the quotation than before and in many cases they are 'inverted' – that is, the verb comes before the subject. The words that introduce, present, or comment on direct quotation may come before, after, or in the middle of the quoted words, and are usually set off from the direct quotation by commas.

Place other marks of punctuation in proper relation to quotation marks, such as question and exclamation marks. The question marks, the dash and the exclamation points are placed within the quotation marks when they apply only to the quoted matter; place them outside when they apply to the whole sentence.

The colon and the semicolon are placed outside the quotation marks.

She spoke of "the protagonists"; yet I remembered only one in "The Tell-Tale Heart": the mad murderer.

Pilate asked, "What is truth?" [The question mark applies only to the quoted matter.]

What is the meaning of the term "half truth"? [The question mark applies to the whole sentence]

Gordon answered, "No way!" [The exclamation point applies only to the quoted matter]

Stop whistling "All I Do Is Dream of You"! [The whole sentence, not the song title, is an exclamation]

Quotations usually consist of passages borrowed from the written work of others or the direct speech of individuals, especially dialogue (conversation).

> William Bradford in his *History of Plimmoth Plantation* describes the cold greeting which the passengers on the ship *Mayflower* received when they landed on the coast of America in 1620: “Being thus arrived in a good harbor, and brought safe to land, they fell upon their knees and blessed the God of Heaven who had brought them over the vast and furious ocean, and delivered them from the perils and miseries thereof, again to set their feet on the firm and stable earth… … Being thus passed the vast ocean… they had no friends to welcome them nor inns to entertain or refresh their weather-beaten bodies.”

Notice that quotation marks are used in pairs: the first one marks the beginning of the quotation, and the second marks the end. Be careful not to omit or misplace the second one.

If the quoted passage has more than one paragraph, the standard rule is to put opening quotation marks at the beginning of each paragraph (as if to refresh the reader’s memory). The closing marks are put only at the end of the whole quotation.

If you want to quote only part of the original wording, omitting some words at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end, replace the omitted words with an ellipses – the ‘dot-dot-dot’. If you add some explanations in the middle of the quoted material, you can do this by enclosing it within square brackets [ ]. In general, though, it is advisable to avoid the ‘dot-dot-dot’ and square brackets, especially if they occur more than once or twice in the text.

There are single quotation marks (‘ ’) and double quotation marks (“ ”).

Double quotation marks are preferable. The closing single quotation mark is identical to an apostrophe and it may sometime lead to confusion. Single quotation marks are handy when quotations are enclosed within quotations. So, use double quotation marks to enclose direct (but not indirect) quotations; use single marks to enclose a quotation within a quotation.

Double quotation marks:

> Making fun of Cooper, Mark Twain said, “He saw nearly all things as through a glass eye, darkly” [a directly quoted sentence].
>
> According to Mark Twain, Cooper “saw nearly all things as through a glass eye, darkly” [part of a sentence quoted directly].
>
> Mark Twain said that Cooper saw nearly everything darkly, as if he were looking through a glass eye. [indirect quotation – no quotation marks].

Single quotation marks within double:

> She said, “Earl keeps calling my idea ‘an impossible dream.’” [a quotation within a quotation]

Note: The double quotation marks enclosing a minor title are reduced to single marks when the title appears within a direct quotation:

> “Edgar Allan Poe’s ‘A Predicament’ is one of the funniest short stories I’ve ever read!” Chet exclaimed. [a title within a quotation]

Consider three specific uses of quotation marks:

(1) Long prose quotations (not dialogue). In printed matter, quoted material of ten or more lines is usually set off from the rest of the text by the use of smaller type, indention, or both. Quotation marks are used only if they appear in the original. In typewritten papers, lengthy quoted passages (more than four lines) are single-spaced and indented from the left margin (sometimes from both margins) five spaces. The first line is indented an additional five spaces when it marks the beginning of a paragraph.

Most people say that spring or summer is their favorite season.
As an art major, I like all the seasons because as Emerson
(in his essay “Nature”) observed,

> To the attentive eye, each moment of the year has its own beauty, and in the same field, it beholds, every hour, a picture which was never seen before, and which shall never be seen again. The heavens change every moment, and reflect their glory or gloom on the plains beneath.

(2) Poetry. In both printed matter and typewritten papers, except for very special emphasis, a single line of poetry or less is handled like other short quotations –run in with the text and enclosed in quotation marks. A two-line quotation may be run in with the text, with a slash marking the end of the first line. Or it may be set off from the text like longer quotations and quoted line by line exactly as it appears in the original:

> The poet asks, “If there were dreams to sell, / What would you buy?”

<u>OR</u>:

> The poet asks,
> If there were dreams to sell,
> What would you buy?

(3) Dialogue (conversation). Written dialogue represents the directly quoted speech of two or more persons talking together. Standard practice is to write each person's speech, no matter how short, as a separate paragraph. Verbs of saying, as well as closely related bits of narrative are included in the paragraph along with the speech:

> The Marquess took his foot down, and sighed.
> "Really, I'm very much obliged to you. I'm delighted to think it will go to a good home."
> "If you care to come and see it at any time" – Soames checked himself. An old fellow with one foot in the House of Lords and one in the grave, and no difference between them, to speak of – as if he'd want to come!
> "That would be delighted", said the Marquess, with his eyes wandering, as Soames had suspected they would. "Have you your own electric plant there?" (John Galsworthy, *Swan Song*)

> Through an interpreter, I spoke with a Bedouin man tending nearby olive trees.
> "Do you own this land?" I asked him.
> He shook his head. "The land belongs to Allah," he said.
> "What about the trees?" I asked. He had just harvested a basket of green olives, and I assumed that at least the trees were his.
> "The trees, too, are Allah's," he replied.
> I marveled at this man who seemed unencumbered by material considerations ... or so I was thinking when, as if in afterthought, he said, "Of course, I own the *olives!"*
> (Harvey Arden, *In Search of Moses*)

The dialogue of a play dispenses with quotation marks:

> *Tony*: No offence; but question for question is all fair, you know. – Pray, gentlemen, is not this same Hardcastle a cross-grained, old-fashioned, whimsical fellow, with an ugly face, a daughter, and a pretty son?
> *Hasting*: We have not seen the gentleman; but he has the family you mention.
> *Tony*: The daughter, a tall, trapesing, trolloping, talkative maypole – the son, a pretty, well-bred, agreeable youth, that every body is fond of?

Marlow: Our information differs in this. The daughter is said to be well-bred, and beautiful; the son an awkward booby, reared up and spoiled at his mother's apron-string.

(Oliver Goldsmith, *She Stoops to Conquer*)

Cordelia: Nothing, my lord.
Lear: Nothing?
Cordelia: Nothing.
Lear: Nothing will come of nothing. Speak again.

(Shakespeare, *King Lear*)

Exercise 1. In the following sentences, change each indirect quotation to a direct quotation and each direct quotation to an indirect one.

1. Doris said that she had a theory about me.
2. Allen announced that he had read "The Sunless Sea."
3. A Weight Watcher, Eileen explained that she could eat as much as she wanted – of vegetables like spinach, eggplant, and zucchini.
4. Clyde asked, "Will you go to the opera with me?"
5. Last night Pruett said that he thought that Amanda's favorite quotation was "Tomorrow belongs to me."

Exercise 2. Copy the sentences, and make all the corrections that are necessary. Use capital letters when they are needed, and use quotation marks.

1. old stormalong the biggest sailor of all was as big as the ships of New England
2. they don't make ships big enough for me said stormalong
3. there she blows a whale and another called the lookout
4. it is a whole school of whales called the second lookout
5. into the boats cried captain starbuck
6. you big elephant cried captain starbuck i m sorry I ever saw you
7. I will catch that whale like a fish he said
8. it was a lucky day when i met you stormalong said the captain
9. you big elephant cried captain starbuck again you lost my whale
10. i tried sailing and i tried whaling said stormalong
11. the ships are too small and a man gets tired i am going to be a farmer and you can bet on that he remarked.

Quotation marks are sometimes used to enclose titles of books, periodicals, and newspapers, but italics are generally preferred.

The Sandcastle by Iris Murdoch

Moby Dick, or the White Whale by Herman Melville
Daniel Martin by John Fowles

Quotation marks are also used for minor titles (short stories, essays, short poems, songs, episodes of a radio or television series, articles in periodicals) and subdivisions of books.

"She Loves Me" was part of the BBC *Great Performances* series.
Gregg Easterbrook's "The Spruce Goose of Outer Space," in the April 1980 issue of *The Washington Monthly,* is about an expensive but grounded flying machine.
Collected Poems of Robert Burns (Wordsworth Edition Limited 1994) contains numerous poems, songs and ballads, including "Tam o' Shanter", "The Jolly Beggars", "To a Mountain Daisy", Mary Morrison" and "My Love is Like a Red Red Rose".

Words used in a special sense are sometimes enclosed in either single or double quotation marks:

Such 'prophecy' is intelligent guessing.
His "castle" was in reality a cozy little rattrap.

Quotation marks may be used to enclose nicknames and slang expressions:

Benny Goodman was called "The King of Swing."
In the 1950s "pad" and "groovy" were popular expressions among the "beat generation."

Note: Either quotation marks or italics may be used in definitions such as the following. 'Puritanical' means "marked by stern morality." *Puritanical* means "marked by stern morality." *Puritanical* means *marked by stern morality.*

DO NOT OVERUSE QUOTATION MARKS

In general, do not enclose in quotation marks common nicknames, bits of humor, technical terms, or trite or well-known expressions. They just go as borrowed elements. Instead of using slang and colloquialisms within quotation marks, use more formal English. Do not use quotation marks for emphasis.

Exercise 3. Add correctly placed quotation marks below.

1. In a poem entitled 2001, scientists turn one Einstein into three Einsteins.
2. Here, stoked means fantastically happy on a surfboard.
3. David enjoyed reading the short story A Circle in the Fire.

4. *Learning to Live Without Cigarettes* opens with a chapter entitled Sighting the Target.

5. Bernice replied, Thomas Jefferson once said, Never spend your money before you have it.

Exercise 4. Insert quotation marks where they are needed in the following sentences.

1. At the beginning of *All in the Family,* Archie and Edith always sang Those Were the Days.

2. Get aholt, instead of get ahold, is still heard occasionally in that region.

3. No, Peg said, I didn't agree to do that for her. I may be a softie, but I haven't gone bananas yet!

4. It was then that I discovered Housman's poem Loveliest of Trees.

5. Why cry over spilled milk? my grandmother used to ask. Be glad that you had the milk to spill.

6. As for me, Socrates said, all I know is that I know nothing.

7. Wasn't it on the *Phil Donahue in Denver* show that Shirley MacLaine asked Isn't travel the best form of self-search?

8. The Old Folks is one of the funniest of Carol Burnett's regular skits.

9. Who wrote The Star-Spangled Banner?

10. Catherine said, Do the townspeople ever say to me You're a born leader? Yes, lots of times, and when they do, I just tell them my motto is Lead, follow, or get the heck out of the way!

Exercise 5. The conversation below is in dialog form like a play. Conversation can also be written in paragraph form, and each new speaker has a new paragraph. Copy the sentences below in paragraph form. Use quotation marks for the exact words of each speaker. Remember to indent each new paragraph.

Insert all quotation marks in the paragraph form of this conversation. Make all other corrections that are necessary.

A DAY AT THE BEACH

Sara: What a beautiful beach! Just look at the water. I can hardly wait to go in.

Sara's Uncle: It is very popular. At least, it's certainly crowded.

Roberto: We'll see many people that we know. Hey! There's my cousin Luis!

Sara: Really? Which one?

Roberto: The one in the green swimming suit.

Sara: I see two guys in green. Is he the tall one or the short one?

Roberto: The tall one with black hair.
Mrs. Perez: And there's Maria, too. She's Luis' sister.
Sara: Which girl is she?
Roberto: The short one in the red suit, with sunglasses.
Sara: We'll meet your whole family here today.

what a beautiful beach said sara just look at the water i can hardly wait to go in it is very popular her uncle answered at least it s certainly crowded we II see many people that we know roberto told them hey there s my cousin luis really asked sara which one the one in the green swimming suit replied roberto is he the tall one or the short one asked sara the tall one with the black hair said Roberto

THE DASH

The dash is used to set off (for emphasis or clarity) an added explanation, or illustration, or parenthetical element; and to mark the end of an introductory series. The principal use of the dash is to surround, as commas and brackets do, any material that is included in a sentence without being structurally essential to it:

> In those days – and you will find it so yet – their women were safe. (O'Henry, *A Techical Error*)
>
> His neighbour to the right – the aristocratic clubman, G. Van Schuylight Suffolk-Jones – came out to his waiting motorcar… (O'Henry, *Mammon and the Archer*)
>
> A little emblem of true love – a little ring that symbolized unending and unmercenary affection – was the cause of our Richard finding his happiness. (O'Henry, *Mammon and the Archer*)

The material within the dashes serves the function of adding information and explaining things that might be interesting or important:

> Some do not succeed in shedding their old problems – such as an ailing marriage, for instance – when they get to Columbia. (Vance Packard)
>
> The other course – to give trust, in the hope of being trusted – carries the promise of mutual benefit and survival. (Sidney Lens)

The dash is used to mark a sudden break in thought, an abrupt change in tone, or faltering speech. When used in the middle of a sentence paired dashes enclose appositive phrases that require a stronger pause than that for commas.

Some science courses – biology, for example – require laboratory as well as classroom time.

In most food products – not many, *most* – two to four corporations already have seized control of the market.

Quickly regaining speech, but still in a state of disbelief, I stammered: “No. Uh, yes. Uh – it's all right.” (Dorothy K. Duffey)

The dash sets off (for emphasis or clarity) an added explanation or illustration.

Lightning is an electrical discharge – an enormous spark.

Use the dash to set off a parenthetical element for emphasis or (if it contains commas) for clarity.

Maybe a third of the thefts from libraries are – and always have been – inside jobs. (David Lampe)

All change – I hesitate to call it progress – is bought at a price. (Paul A. Samuelson)

A true book is a report upon the mystery of existence; it tells what has been seen in a man's life in the world – touched there, thought of, tasted. (Archibald MacLeish)

Sentiments that human shyness will not always allow one to convey in conversation – sentiments of gratitude, of apology, of love – can often be more easily conveyed in a letter. (Aristides)

Out of such three punctuation marks as the commas, brackets, and dashes the latter is most striking. Its sheer visibility is what makes it so appropriate when setting off the parenthetical material from its surroundings. This separating off part of the sentence is either for the sake of emphasis, or because it is very long or different in tone or structure from the whole sentence.

COMPARE:

The postman (a good friend of mine) denied the charge.

The postman, a good friend of mine, denied the charge.

The postman – a good friend of mine – denied the charge.

Another item typically introduced by the dash is the change in a train of thought:

A hypocrite is a person who – but who isn’t?

‘The queer, I guess,’ said Harry. ‘Or else he’ one of Jerome’s men. Or some guy with a new graft. He’s too much hayseed. Maybe that

his – I wonder now – oh no, it could have been real money.' (O'Henry, *The Poet and the Peasant*)

The dash may help to express overexcitement of a person:

Then – oh, then – if you still stood on one foot, with your hot hand clutching the three moist dollars in your pocket, and hoarsely proclaimed your hideous and culpable poverty, nevermore would Mrs. Parker be cicerone of yours. She would honk loudly the word "Clara", she would show you her back, and march downstairs. (O'Henry, *The Skylight Room*)

The dash is used to indicate the omission of all or part of a taboo word:

They noticed that he did not lay down upon the bed prepared for it in the ambulance the form that he carried, and all that he said was: "Drive like h –1, Wilson," to the driver. (O'Henry, *The Skylight Room*)

The single dash may come at the end of a sentence, if the sentence is incomplete or interrupted:

"Oh, yes, doctor," sniffed Mrs. Parker, as though her trouble that there should be trouble in the house was the greater. "I can't think what can be the matter with her. Nothing we could do would bring her to. It's a young woman, a Miss Elsie – yes, a Miss Elsie Leeson. Never before in my house –"

"What room?" cried the doctor in a terrible voice, to which Mrs. Parker was a stranger.

"The skylight room. It –"

(O'Henry, *The Skylight Room*)

In some cases the dash may be replaced by the colon, but you can feel the difference – the colon would be more formal:

She did not have a particularly light touch with flavors and textures – her roasts were dredged with flour, her seasonings heavily dependent on cayenne, parsley, and tomato. = She did not have a particularly light touch with flavors and textures: her roasts were dredged with flour, her seasonings heavily dependent on cayenne, parsley, and tomato. (Laura Shapiro)

(Use the dash between items in an introductory series that are often referents of *all, everything, none, such, that* or *these in* the main part of the sentence. They usually explain or amplifie the series.

Patience, diligence, painstaking attention to detail – these are the requirements. (Mark Twain)

Keen, calculating, perspicacious, acute and astute – I was all of these. (Max Shulman)

Marble-topped tables, two Singer sewing machines, a big vase of pampas grass –everything was rich and grand. (Carson McCullers)

"Let's see, it was a Chilian diamond engagement ring, a wedding ring, a potato masher, a bottle of soothing syrep and Dorothy Vernon – all for fifty cents." (O'Henry, *Jeff Peters as a Personal Magnet*)

The dash may be used to express hesitation:

"Glad to see you, Mr. – ", said the consul.

The Kid laughed.

"Sprague Dalton," he said. (O'Henry, *A Double-dyed Deceiver*)

CAUTION: Use the dash carefully in formal writing. Do not use dashes as awkward substitutes for commas, semicolons, or end marks.

THE HYPHEN

The hyphen (-) looks like a short dash, but hyphen and dash are used differently: the dash separates while the hyphen unites. Knowing when to use a hyphen is a common problem even for experienced writers. No complete and satisfactory set of rules seems possible. The use of hyphens varies from British to American English, from author to author and from publisher to publisher.

So what is said below is concerned with what is generally true and should be accepted as recommendations rather than rules.

Hyphenated words chiefly express the idea of a unit and allow the writer or the speaker to avoid ambiguity.

And my desire was granted, for I saw, near a corner of Broadway and Twenty-ninth Street, a little *flaxen-haired* man with a face like a scaly back hickory-nut, selling to a fast gathering crowd a tool that omnigeneously proclaimed itself *a can-opener*, *a screw-driver, a button-hook, a nail-file, a shoe-horn, a watch-guard, a potato-peeler*, and an ornament to any gentleman's *key-ring*.

The hyphenated modifier is closely joined in speech, and both words are stressed. We use the hyphen to join two or more words serving as a

single adjective before a noun. This close joining is indicated in writing by a hyphen (-).

the bluish-green sea, chocolate-covered peanuts, peace-loving natives, his know-it-all glance, the twenty-two-year-old, laboratory technician

[Note the singular form of the noun *year* after the numeral in the hyphenated modifier.]

Modifiers ending in **–ing** are hyphenated: *I like a story with a **fast-moving** plot.*

Hyphenated modifiers can be formed from action verb phrases. To form the modifier, place the verb at the end of the phrase and add **–ing**.

e.g. The shark is an animal that eats man. = The shark is a man-eating animal; Ophelia is a person who talks fast. = Ophelia is a fast-talking person; This is a chocolate that tastes bitter. = This is a bitter-tasting chocolate; There's a sculpture that looks impressive. = There's an impressive-looking sculpture.

Exercise 1. Change the sentences to include hyphenated modifiers.

1. Mr. Green is a man that looks impatient.
2. This is an object that catches the eye.
3. The Concorde is a plane that flies fast.
4. It's a story which provokes thought.
5. Is Ralf a person who looks angry?
6. That book has a title that sounds interesting.
7. That was an event that shook the world.
8. This is the traffic lane that moves slowly.
9. Constance is a person who works hard.

We hyphenate modifiers with past participles: *How can you like such action-filled trash?* Hyphenated modifiers can be formed from passive and reflexive verb phrases. To form the modifier, place the past participle of the verb at the end of the phrase and place a hyphen between the two words. E.g. She gave a speech that was filled with emotion. = She gave an emotion-filled speech; He is a man who educated himself. = He is a self-educated man; There is the house that was damaged by fire. = There is the fire-damaged house; She has a voice that is pitched high. = She has a high-pitched voice.

Consider other examples: poverty-stricken, hard-boiled, well-behaved, air-conditioned, old-fashioned; also: short-term, red-hot, blue-green, past-time, etc.

Exercise 2. Change the sentences to include hyphenated modifiers.

1. He likes to read documents which have been preserved well.
2. He prefers to talk with people who are informed well.
3. He gave a speech that was filled with emotion.
4. Does he have a voice that is pitched high?
5. His daughter bought him a basket that was woven by hand.
6. His wife gave him a sweater that was made by hand.
7. They have children who behave themselves well.

Hyphenated modifiers can also be formed from noun phrases *right hand, sad face, loud voice*, etc. To form the modifier, add **–ed** to the noun and place a hyphen before it. No verb is involved in the formation of these modifiers.

e.g. She writes with her right hand. = She writes right-handed;

Is he the man with sad face? = Is he the sad-faced man?

The man with the loud voice sat near us. = The loud-voice man sat near us.

Care should be taken when forming the modifier from a noun phrase that includes **good. Good** sometimes becomes **well.**

e.g. He's a person of good humour. = He's a good-humoured person.

She's a person with good manners. = She's a well-mannered person.

Exercise 3. Change the italicized noun phrases into hyphenated modifiers.

1. She seemed to be a person with *mild temper*.
2. She's known as the woman with the *loud voice*.
3. For this job we need a person with *a cool head.*
4. I thought she was a businesswoman with *clear sight*.
5. Her assistant always said she was a person with a *hard head*.
6. She gave a presentation which showed only *one side* of the problem.
7. Her secretary is considered to be a person with a *kind heart*.
8. She's the only person with *good manners* in the office.

Words forming a compound may be written separately, written as one word, or connected by hyphens. For example, some modern dictionaries have the same listings of these compounds:

hair stylist hairsplitter hair-raiser

Another modern dictionary, however, lists *hairstylist,* not *hair stylist.*

Notice that in the examples below the modifiers after the noun are not hyphenated:

The sea was bluish green.
The peanuts, which were chocolate covered, tasted stale.
The laboratory technician was twenty-two years old.

[Note that numbers like *twenty-two* are hyphenated wherever they appear in a sentence.]

More than one hyphenated adjectival, of course, may precede the noun modified:

“I reject get-it-done, make-it-happen thinking,” he says.

"Suspension" hyphens are used in such series as the following:

two-, three-, and four-hour classes

Note: The hyphen is generally omitted after an adverb ending in *-ly* in such phrases as the following:

a hopelessly lost cause a frequently used example

Exercise 4. Convert the following word groups according to the pattern of the examples.

EXAMPLES: an initiation lasting two months *a two-month initiation*
ideas that shake the world *world-shaking ideas*

1. an apartment with six rooms
2. examinations that exhaust the mind
3. fingers stained with ink
4. a voter who is eighteen years old
5. shoppers who are budget minded
6. tents costing a hundred dollars
7. peace talks that last all night
8. a program that trains teachers
9. a hitchhiker who was waving a flag
10. ponds covered with lilies

Use the hyphen with compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine (or twenty-first to ninety-ninth) if they are spelt out:

Seven hundred and forty-five; forty-five thousand and
fifty-three; forty-six; fifty-eighth BUT three hundred twenty

Note: Usage varies regarding the hyphenation of fractions. The hyphen is required, however, only when the fraction functions as a compound modifier.

almost one-half full BUT eating only one half of it
a two-thirds vote BUT two thirds of the voters

For fraction whose numerators or denominators are between 21 and 99 each part is treated separately, with whatever hyphens are appropriate, and there are no hyphens between numerator and denominator:

Seven sixty-fifth (7/65), thirty-five ninety-eights (35/98)

Fractions whose numerators or denominators are larger than 99 should be written as numbers rather than words wherever possible. Note that hundredth/s, thousandth/s, millionth/s can be preceded by a hyphen when they are part of the denominator of a fraction: *three six-hundredths of a second* (3/600).

The hyphen marks help to avoid ambiguity:

a Turkish-bath attendants / a Turkish bath-attendants;
an English-history teacher / an English history-teacher

English-speaking people; French-speaking people / English-and French-speaking people; a dirty movie-theater (Compare "a dirty-movie theater."); to re-sign a petition (Compare "to resign a position); man, eating wolf – man-eating wolf; scarlet coated woman – scarlet-coated woman

Hyphen helps to avoid an awkward combination of letters or syllables between prefix and root or suffix and root:

We use the hyphen before a suffix to prevent unattractive sequences of more than two identical letters: bull-like, shell-like, semi-identical, semi-independent (but womanlike, workmanlike, childlike, semifluid).

The hyphen is used with the prefixes *ex-* ("former"), *self-, all-;* with the suffix *-elect;* and between a prefix and a capitalized word.

ex-wife self-help all-inclusive mayor-elect mid September

The hyphen is used when the main part of a word begins with a capital letter:

non-Biblical
anti-American

un-Ameircan
non-European

If the compound consists of more than two words or elements, it is most unlikely to be fused into a single, solid compound. It is usually hyphenated or written with spaces:

Mother-in-law
Jack-of-all-trades
A bull of a boy
A fist of a hammer

Note: The hyphen is also used with figures or letters such as *mid-1980s* or *T-shirt.*

Exercise 5. Refer to the rules above and to your dictionary as you convert each phrase (or words within each phrase) to a compound or to a word with a prefix. Use hyphens when needed.

EXAMPLES: glasses used for water — *water glasses* OR *waterglasses*
not Communistic — *non-Communistic*
a man who makes $75,000 a year — *a $75,000-a-year man*

1. respect for oneself
2. persons keeping the score
3. bacon cured with sugar
4. a plan for sharing the profit
5. a latch used at night
6. four and twenty
7. a cleaner for all purposes
8. a woman who is ninety-two years old
9. in the shape of a V
10. fences that are covered with snow
11. the flight from Montreal to Portland
12. a sale lasting two or three days

BRACKETS. SQUARE BRACKETS (PARENTHESES)

There are two types of brackets: crescent-shaped brackets **( ),** and square brackets **[ ]**. In British English words in either kind of brackets are said to be in parenthesis. The basic function of parenthesis is to separate the

bracketed material clearly from what surrounds it. Typical examples of short bracketed material include dates and references:

> The first French revolution (1789-1793) had a great impact on further European development.
>
> Walter Scott's *Ivanhoe* (1920) deals with English history of the XII century.

In general, material set off by brackets is less closely integrated with the rest of the text than material set off by commas. In the previous cases the bracketed material may be omitted, and it will not ruin the sentence and its meaning at all.

The dates of life of a person (a writer, poet, playwright, politician, etc.) are called life brackets:

> Mark Twain (1835-1910)
>
> John Fowles (1926-2005)

Use parentheses to set off parenthetical, supplementary, or illustrative matter and to enclose figures or letters when used for enumeration within a sentence:

> Other good sightseeing services in Washington include Gray Line Sightseeing Tours (202-347-0600), and Diamond Sightseeing Tours (202-546-9800).
>
> Some states (New York, for instance) outlaw the use of any electronic eavesdropping device by private individuals.

Brackets can also enclose letters or numbers used to order items in a list:

> When confronted with ambiguities, we are not certain as to how we should interpret (1) single words or phrases, (2) the sense of a sentence, (3) the emphases or accents desired by the writer or speaker, or (4) the significance of a statement.
>
> Each entry will be judged on the basis of (a) its artistic value, *(b)* its technical competence, and (c) its originality.

Normally, the brackets are used in pairs. But sometimes only the final bracket is used, especially when the listed items appear on separate lines:

> There are the following points to consider here:
>
> 1) ….
>
> 2) ….

3) ….

4) ….

Brackets are also used to enclose material that offers a choice of words or concepts:

> The clinic tests both men and women for (in)fertility. (In effect the sentence means that the clinic tests both men and women for fertility or infertility, as the case may be).

Parentheses generally minimize the importance of the elements they enclose and serve as the additional information:

Man's mind is indeed (as Luther said) a factory busy with making idols.

Commas are a bit stronger separators.

> Man's mind is indeed, as Luther said, a factory busy with making idols. Eventually, very often the effect of using the brackets is to give the bracketed material greater prominence and attract the attention of the readers to the certain adjectives or phrases that come before nouns:
>
> A number of (unsuitable) candidates for the post of the president also offered their services.

Dashes, parentheses, commas – all are used to set off parenthetical matter. Dashes set off parenthetical elements sharply and usually emphasize them:

> Man's mind is indeed – as Luther said – a factory busy with making idols.

Here are some other typical uses of brackets to present supplementary or explanatory material:

> at seventy (70) miles per hour
> the year 1985 (5745 in the Jewish calendar)
> the first man to jump 8 ft (2.4 metres)
> British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL)
> the degree of B.Ed. (Bachelor of Education)

Note: In sentences such as the following, the commas and periods are placed after the closing parenthesis, not before the opening parenthesis.

> Cuban schools, especially on the Isle of Youth (formerly the Isle of Pines), bear names of prominent African figures (Agostinho Neto, Eduardo Mondlane).

If a whole sentence beginning with a capital is in the closing parentheses, the period or other end mark is placed just before the closing parenthesis.

> Whatever else may be happening, Madame Colette is never *really* unaware, never *really* confused, never *really* afraid. (She can get mighty irritated sometimes) – (Stephen Koch).

Square brackets are rather technical marks of punctuation.

Editors usually enclose in brackets editorial corrections, comments, or explanations in material written by someone else:

> The *Home Herald* printed the beginning of the mayor's speech: "My dear fiends [sic] and fellow citizens. [A bracketed *sic* –meaning "thus" – tells the reader that the error appears in the original: instead of *fiends* there should be *friends*].
>
> It is then, perhaps, worth discussing whether Boccaccio's major work [*The Decameron*] influenced Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*.

Use square brackets to set off interpolations in quoted matter and to replace parentheses within parentheses:

> Just think of the poor starving children of Mozambique [Somali, Congo, Costa Rica]!"
>
> She recommended several source books (for example, Jules H. Guilder's *Computer Programs in Science and Engineering* [Rochelle Park, N.J.: Hayden, 1980]).

Square brackets can be used to enclose a parenthesis within a parenthesis. Though in some cases it is perhaps better to use some other punctuation.

COMPARE:

> My aunt (I never knew what she looked like [she died before I was born]) left the brooch to my mother. My aunt (I never knew what she looked like – she died before I was born) left the brooch to my mother.

Square brackets are used in scientific works (articles, graduation essays, dissertations, etc.) to include references:

> [15, 69; 17, 125] [15, p.69; 17, p.125]. The first figure refers to the source of quoted material listed *15* in the list of cited Literature used by the scholar while writing the scientific work; the second figure means the page from which the quotation or reference (thought, idea) had been taken.

THE SLASH

This punctuation mark, represented by a diagonal stroke (/) is used to separate alternatives:

Everyone knows that he/she is mortal.

You need a lot of luck and/or hard work to succeed at anything (*this means that you need a lot of luck, or hard work, or both to be successful*).

This punctuation mark is also called the solidus, pronounced /solli-dəss/. The plural of solidus is solidi. The solidus may also be called the *slant* (in British English), *the bar, the diagonal* (in American English), or the *stroke.* The latter is used especially when you are reading out a written text to someone (a typewriter or a person who is taking down notes).

E.g., *section B/65* might be read out as 'section B stroke sixty-five'.

Note that the slash is used unspaced between terms.

The slash may also be used before an optional element to indicate that either term is applicable:

vowel/s (it means 'either a vowel or vowels). In this case the slash is the equivalent of brackets: vowel(s).

The solidus (the slash) can also be used in writing dates: 2/9/09 (it means 2 September 2009 (This is now the standard form in British English), or February 9 2009 (the commonest form in the USA and Canada, and is still used by some British publications).

This is the variety of possible styles of representing 7 October 1990:

a) in Britain and other English-speaking countries (but not in the USA):

7/10/90
7.10.90
7-10-90

b) in the U.S: 10/7/90

The slash can separate successive units in the expressions of time:

2009/2010 January/February Monday/Tuesday
The weekend of 15/16 August

But when the units are not successive a dash, or a hyphen is used instead of the slash:

the First World war of 1914-1918

Washington metrorail which operates Monday-Friday, 6am to midnight, and Sunday 10am – 6pm, uses a farecard system.

The slash is also frequently used in writing fractions: ½, ¾, etc.

The slash also represents the word *per*: 60 ml/hr (it means *sixty miles per hour*).

When citing the lines of poetry in a scientific article the slash is used to indicate the line-break of the original. Mind that in this case it is better to use a space before and after the slash between lines of poetry:

"Few lines in English poetry are more familiar than the first lines of sonnet 43 by Elizabeth Browning: How do I love thee? Let me count the ways. / I love thee to the depth and breadth and height / My soul can reach, when feeling out of sight / For the ends of Being and ideal Grace.

Exercise. Correctly punctuate each of the following sentences by supplying commas, dashes, parentheses, brackets, or the slash. Be prepared to explain the reason for all marks you add, especially those you choose for setting off parenthetical matter.

1. Gordon Gibbs or is it his twin brother? plays the drums.
2. Joseph who is Gordon's brother is a lifeguard at the Beachfront Hotel.
3. "I admit that I" he began, but his voice broke; he could say no more.
4. This organization needs more of everything more money, brains, initiative.
5. Some of my courses for example, French and biology demand a great deal of work outside the classroom.
6. In the TV version of *The Lone Ranger,* Jay Silverheels 1918-1980 played the role of Tonto.
7. This ridiculous sentence appeared in the school paper: "Because of a personal fool sic the Cougars failed to cross the goal line during the last seconds of the game."
8. The word *zipper* once a trademark like Polaroid is now a common noun.
9. Gently rolling hills, rich valleys, beautiful lakes these things impress the tourist in Connecticut.
10. Some innovations for example the pass fail system did not contribute to grade inflation.

THREE DOTS. (THE ELLIPSIS MARK)

The punctuation device known as an ellipsis (plural form is *ellipses*) is usually represented by three dots in succession (…), though sometimes by an indefinite number (……) to indicate the omission of words, or whole sentences in a quoted passage or speech.

When the sentence is incomplete the three dots follow it immediately without a space, then the dot is used to indicate the end:

The princess pleaded… .

Ellipses are used to show hesitation in speech. The ellipses can suggest a trailing off or fading away of the voice:

> ‘But isn’t this where…?’ she began
> ‘Yes … I wanted you to see the family’s pride and joy.’
> ‘What!’
> ‘“The curfew tolls the knell of parting day…er…” Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard, by my ancestor Thomas Gray,’ he said and parked outside the gate of an absurdly picturesque churchyard.
>
> (Maeve Binchy, *The Glass Lake*)

The ellipses are used to express great excitement and emotional state:

> ‘My mother is dead,’ Kit flared.
> ‘No, no.’
> ‘She’s dead, she drowned in the lake…she drowned herself. I know that…she drowned herself…’ Kit’s voice had the high tinge of hysteria.
>
> (Maeve Binchy, *The Glass Lake*)

Dashes could also be used in such cases but the effect of it can be a sudden break in the speech, rather then emotional state:

> Lena stretched out her hand – but Kit backed away.
> ‘You didn’t die – you ran away. You’re not drowned –
> you just left us – you left us.’
>
> (Maeve Binchy, *The Glass Lake*)

The ellipsis can be used to mark a reflective, pensive or thoughtful (thought-filled) pause, deliberate hesitation, a slight modification of the idea previously expressed, or an intentionally unfinished statement (not an interruption that is usually marked by the dash):

‘I want you to know…’ it was he who was stammering now…‘that I only joined the fucking consortium because of you.’

(Jilly Cooper, *Rivals*)

“Then look in the lodge,” Arnold said, “look in the maintenance building, look in the utility shed, look everywhere, but just *find him*.”
“The thing is…” The guard hesitated. “Mr. Nedry’s the fat man, is that right?”

(Michael Crichton, *Jurassic Park*)

‘And where do you live…usually, that is, Francis?’
‘I live…I live…’ he stopped. She was still. ‘I used to live in a home, Sister Madeleine, but I got out of it. The trouble was I needed money. I hated the home…they should never call it that. This place is more of a home than that was.’

(Maeve Binchy, *The Glass Lake*)

Love, like other emotions, has causes ... and consequences.

Some writers use ellipses at the end of a sentence instead of using the full stop, even though nothing has been omitted at all. This is a stylistic tic, intended to suggest the sentence, though complete, leaves much unsaid. It is a handy device for gossip columnists:

He said that the sultry blonde was his ‘business acquaintance’…

Another use of ellipses is to convey the idea of ‘*etc*., and *so forth, so on* (also *so on and so forth*)’ in order to indicate the continuation of something. As an example you may use even numbers 2, 4, 6, 8 (,)… This means that the sequence continues further 10, 12, 14, 16, and so on.

When a whole passage is quoted it is generally considered unnecessary to use the ellipsis mark at the beginning or the end of a quoted passage:

Clinton Rossiter writes: “My own answer to the question ‘What is liberty?’ is essentially this: Liberty ... cannot be defined but can be understood.” [Note the use of single quotation marks in ‘What is liberty?’

Compare the quoted passage above with the original:

My own answer to the question “What is liberty?” is essentially this: Liberty, like truth and justice and all the other great abstractions cannot be defined but can be understood, and the first step toward

> understanding is to identify the most important uses of the word. (Clinton Rossiter)

If a complete sentence in the quotation precedes the omission, use a period before the ellipsis mark:

> “Nevertheless, inflation really is a horror,” Martin Mayer contends, “because it demeans work. In a developed economy, people necessarily work for money. ... If the money they receive in return for their labors is continually diminishing in value, they feel an insult to themselves and to their function in society, even if as installment debtors they benefit by it.” [Note that no space precedes the period before the ellipsis mark.]

Compare the quotation with the original:

> Nevertheless, inflation really is a horror, because it demeans work. In a developed economy, people necessarily work for money. Obviously, they want money to buy something, but at the time of work, and of thinking about work, they do not normally have in their heads the idea of what they are going to buy with the proceeds. If the money they receive in return for their labors is continually diminishing in value, they feel an insult to themselves and to their function in society, even if as installment debtors they benefit by it. (Martin Mayer)

The ellipsis mark indicates that a part of a sentence, one or more sentences (Like the left out sentence: *Obviously, they want money to buy something, but at the time of work, and of thinking about work, they do not normally have in their heads the idea of what they are going to buy with the proceeds*.), or (sometimes) a full paragraph or more has been left out. Spaced periods covering a whole line mark the omission of at least one paragraph in prose or a full line in poetry.

> All I can say is – I saw it!
> …….
> Impossible! Only – I saw it!
> (Robert Browning)

SENTENCE COMBINING

SENTENCE TYPES

Sentences come in various forms. A great many factors should go into choosing and ordering the information: the tone and emphasis you want to convey, the links you want to establish the sentence that comes before or after, the relative importance you attach to each of the elements of the sentence.

According to its purpose a sentence might be: a statement, a question, an exclamation, an imperative (command).

Sentences may be classified according to their structure, i.e., according to the kinds of clause it contains, as:

- simple – having only one clause: *They need our help.*
- compound – having two or more main clauses: *They need our help, and we can give it, but they will hardly accept anything from us.*
- complex – having one main clause an one or more subordinate clauses: *They need our help, though they don't like to admit it.*
- compound-complex - having two or more main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses: *They need our help and will get it when we arrive, though they will hardly accept it.*

1. A simple sentence has only one subject and one predicate (either or both of which may be compound):

Dick started a coin collection. [Subject – verb – object]**.**

2. A compound sentence consists of at least two main clauses:

Dick started a coin collection, and his wife bought an album of rare stamps.

3. A complex sentence has one main clause and at least one subordinate clause:

As soon as Dick started a coin collection, his wife bought an album of rare stamps. [Adverb clause, main clause]

4. A compound-complex sentence consists of at least two main clauses and at least one subordinate clause:

As soon as Dick started a coin collection, his wife bought an album of rare stamps; on Christmas morning they exchanged coins and stamps. [Adverb clause, main clause; main clause]

Sentences may also be classified according to their purpose as *statements, commands* or *requests, questions,* or *exclamations* and are punctuated accordingly.

Weak or inexperienced learners often reveal their tendency to rely exclusively on simple or compound sentences; professional people tend to go to the other extreme – using complex or compound-complex sentences one after another and avoiding the refreshing sharpness of simple sentences.

When you write sentences it is important to feel that each sentence is not isolated from the others but there is flow from one sentence into the next. The joined sentences or parts of sentences give the paragraph smoothness and fluency and make it more interesting for readers. Let's learn the mastery of joining sentences with connectors.

Note: As a rule, do not write sentence fragments.

A fragment is a non-sentence. It is a part of a sentence – such as a phrase or subordinate clause – written as if it were a sentence.

Fragments	**Sentences**
My father always planting a spring garden	My father always plants a spring garden.
Because he likes to eat vegetables.	He likes to eat vegetables.
That help the body to combat infection	He eats foods that help the body to combat infection
For example, yellow and green vegetables.	for example, yellow and green vegetables.

Recognizing intonation patterns may help you avoid some types of fragments in your writing. Read the following sentences aloud, and note how your voice indicates the end of each complete statement.

We saw that.
We saw that movie.
We saw that movie on TV last summer.

The best way to avoid fragments, however, is to recognize the structural differences between sentences and non-sentences. Remember that a complete statement is an independent unit containing at least one subject and predicate. Not all fragments are to be avoided. Some types of fragments

are standard. Exclamations, as well as questions and their answers, are often single words, phrases, or subordinate clauses written as sentences:

Wow! I really enjoy it.
Where does a mystery story begin?
On the last page. Always!

Written dialogue that mirrors speech habits often contains grammatically incomplete sentences or elliptical expressions within the quotation marks. Occasionally, professional writers deliberately use fragments for rhetorical effect.

Despite their suitability for some purposes, sentence fragments are comparatively rare in formal expository writing. In formal papers, sentence fragments are to be used – if at all – sparingly and with care. College students should learn the fundamentals of English composition before permitting themselves to take liberties with the accepted patterns of the complete sentence. Before handing in a composition, proofread each word group written as a sentence. Test each one for completeness. When you revise carelessly connected sentences, choose a method that achieves the emphasis you want. See how you can revise the following sentence:

The current was swift, he could not swim to shore.

1. Because the current was swift, he could not swim to shore, [first main clause subordinated]

2. The current was so swift that he could not swim to shore, [second main clause subordinated]

3. Because of the swift current he could not swim to shore, [first clause reduced to an introductory phrase]

4. The current was swift. He could not swim to shore, [each main clause converted to a sentence]

5. The current was swift; he could not swim to shore, [main clauses separated by a semicolon]

6. The current was swift, so he could not swim to shore, [comma preceding the connective *so*]

7. He could not swim to shore, for the current was swift, [comma preceding the coordinating conjunction *for]*

Several words in the English language may be used to make effective connections between sentences.

1. Coordinating conjunctions

This group of connectors joins two statements of equal importance (main clauses) by indicating a relationship between the two. **Note:** When linking main clauses with coordinating conjunctions *and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet*, be aware of the various meanings of these connectives as you relate the clauses:

and connects two similar ideas (in addition, also, moreover, besides)
but connects opposing ideas (nevertheless, however, still, yet)
for provides a reason (because, seeing that, since)
nor indicates a negative (and not, or not, not either)
or indicates a choice (as an alternative, otherwise)
so shows a cause and its effect (therefore, as a result)
yet connects opposing ideas (nevertheless, however, still)

EXAMPLES:

1. My wife cleaned the floor *and* I washed the windows.
2. Jennifer didn't boast when she succeeded *nor* did she cry when she failed.
3. She felt tired of the hard the hard and exhausting month *yet* she never missed a day of work.
4. Dad always helps with the housework *for* my mother is working full time.
5. My sister loves soap serials *but* I would rather watch world news programme.
6. John was injured in yesterday's football game *so* he will not be able to come to school today.
7. Are we going to the movie tonight *or* you already have plans?
8. He tried again to dissuade her, *but* she was adamant. (J. Cox)

Note: When two sentences of equal importance are also closely related in thought, they can be combined with a semicolon.

1. Friday we visited the old castle and the knights tournament; Saturday we went to the Stonehenge.
2. Martyn doesn't like his red sweater; he prefers to wear white shirt and black trousers.
3. Please lend me the novel by Josephine Cox you were reading; I'll return it within a week.

Use a comma between main clauses *only* when they are linked by the coordinating conjunctions *and, but, or, for, nor, so,* or *yet.*

Her first novel was not a best seller, nor was it a complete failure. [Note the shift in the word order of subject and verb after the coordinating conjunction *nor*]

OR:

Her first novel was neither a best seller nor a complete failure, [a simple sentence with a compound complement]

Caution: Do not omit punctuation between main clauses not linked by *and, but, or, for, nor, so,* and *yet.*

Fused sentence: She wrote him a love letter he answered it in person.

Revised sentence: She wrote him a love letter. He answered it in person, [each main clause written as a sentence] OR: She wrote him a love letter; he answered it in person. [main clauses separated by a semicolon**]**

Note: Either a comma or a semicolon may be used between short main clauses not linked by *and, but, or, for, nor, so,* or *yet* when the clauses are parallel in form and unified in thought:

School bores them, preaching bores them, even television bores them. (Arthur Miller)

One is the reality; the other is the symbol. (Nancy Hale)

2. Paired Connectors

Paired connectors can also be used to make a connection between two sentences of equal importance:

Either … or indicates a choice between alternatives

Not only … but also indicates an additional idea in the second sentence. When sentences are combined with paired connectors, a comma precedes the second connector.

EXAMPLE

1. *Either* clean the room now, *or* set aside time on Saturday morning to clean it.
2. *Not only* did John help me in the garden, *but* he *also* fixed my bicycle.
3. In the time of economic crisis *not only* must we learn to use less of our energy resources, *but* we must *also* explore new energy sources.
4. You can *either* write your report, *or* print it on computer.

5. *Not only* we learn in class to create new ideas, *but* we *also* learn to express them effectively.

3. Adverb connectors

Some adverbs can be used to connect sentences of equal importance. Adverb connectors indicate special kinds of relationship between two sentences. When an adverb connector is used, a semicolon separates the connected sentences, and a comma follows the adverb connector.

however **instead** **nevertheless** **on the other hand**	**}** connect opposites
consequently **hence** **therefore** **thus**	**}** suggest a conclusion is being made
besides **furthermore** **in addition**	**}** signal that an additional point is being made
moreover **indeed** **in fact**	} give emphasis to the writer's ideas

EXAMPLES:

1. Scientists are working hard to conserve energy*; nevertheless,* Ukraine still faces a critical shortage of energy resources.
2. Langston Hughes is renowned both for his poetry and fiction*; in fact,* his books *Not Without Laughter* is an outstanding novel about a teenage boy.
3. At the university Coleridge wrote poetry*; consequently,* he got a gold medal for his Greek poem.
4. I left home early this morning*; however,* I was caught in traffic and missed my lecture on geography.
5. The library was already closed when I came*; therefore*, I could not return the book in good time.
6. Michael likes to write short stories*; furthermore,* he enjoys teaching others to write.

4. Subordinating conjunctions

To combine a major statement with one of lesser importance connecting words called *subordinators* may be used. Subordinators link a lesser statement to a major statement by indicating the relationship between the two.

after	before	whenever
although	even though, even if	where
as	if	when
as if,	just so	wherever
as long as	just when	whether
as soon as	since	while
as though	so that	unless
because	shortly after	until

When a subordinator is placed in front of a statement, this clause cannot stand alone but is dependent on another, major, statement.

1. *After* leaving school, Samuel Taylor Coleridge was about to apprentice himself to a shoemaker.
2. *Whenever* he called afterwards, she refused to talk to him.
3. She covered her mouth tightly with her hand *as if* she was frightened by the words already forming in her mind.
4. David looked around attentively *before* he locked the door.
5. *As soon as* she walked into the room, everybody shouted “Happy birthday!”
6. The mystery was not solved *until* the detective arrived.
7. He had to find her *even if* he was repulsed by how the years might have worn her. (J. Cox)
8. *As* the years went on and he grew older and more lonely, Edward Trent had begun to regret many things. (J. Cox)
9. *Shortly after* the girls had departed, Lucy excused herself (J. Cox)

Learn to recognize main clauses and the various types of sentences.

A main clause can stand alone as a sentence, a grammatically independent unit of expression, although it may require other sentences to complete its meaning.

I had lost my passport, but I did not worry about it.
[A coordinating conjunction links the two main clauses]

Although I had lost my passport, I did not worry about it.
[A subordinate clause precedes the main clause.]

Main clauses may be converted to sentences:

I had lost my passport.
I did not worry about it.

OR:

But I did not worry about it.

Do not carelessly link two sentences with only a comma (comma splice) or run two sentences together without any punctuation (fused sentence).

Carefully observe how three sentences below have been linked to make the one long sentence with three main clauses:

Separated sentences:

These are mysteries performed in broad daylight before our very eyes. We can see every detail. And yet they are still mysteries.

Sentences linked:

These are mysteries performed in broad daylight before our very eyes; we can see every detail, and yet they are still mysteries.

When you connect the end of one sentence to the beginning of another, be especially careful about punctuation.

Unlike main clauses, subordinate clauses become fragments if isolated and written as sentences. The so-called conjunctive adverbs and transitional phrases, many of which have already been mentioned above, help to make the sentences flow natural and smooth.

Below is a list of frequently used conjunctive adverbs and transitional phrases; they function as both an adverb and a conjunctive:

Conjunctive adverbs:

also	incidentally	nonetheless
anyway	indeed	otherwise
besides	instead	still
consequently	likewise	then
finally	meanwhile	therefore
furthermore	moreover	thus
hence	nevertheless	

however next

Transitional phrases:

after all	even so	in the second place
as a result	for example	on the contrary
at any rate	in addition	on the other hand
at the same time	in fact	
by the way	in other words	

Expressions such as *that is* and *what is more* also function as adverbials connecting main clauses:

> The new members have paid their dues; what is more, they are all eager to work hard for our organization.

Conjunctive adverbs and transitional phrases are not grammatically equivalent to coordinating conjunctions. A coordinating conjunction has a fixed position between the main clauses it links, but many conjunctive adverbs and transitional phrases may either begin the second main clause or take another position in it:

> She doubted the value of daily meditation, but she decided to try it. [The coordinating conjunction has a fixed position.]
>
> She doubted the value of daily meditation; however, she decided to try it. [The conjunctive adverb begins the second main clause.]
>
> She doubted the value of daily meditation; she decided, however, to try it. [The conjunctive adverb appears later in the clause.]

Exercise. Use conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs to combine the pairs of sentences below. Remember that the punctuation rules are different for conjunctions and adverbs.

1. Many young people want to travel to other countries. They don't have enough money, (but)
2. Air travel and hotels are very expensive. There are other ways to see foreign countries, (however)
3. Educational exchanges are cheaper than vacations. They involve valuable learning experience, (in addition)
4. Most young Americans have part-time jobs. They can save some money for travel, (as a result)
5. Sara goes to school and helps her mother.
   She finds time to work at a grocery store, too. (even though)

6. She has $1000 of her own money.
   She is planning to visit her uncle in Venezuela, (so)
7. Sara works hard.
   She has very little free time. (so…that)
8. Sara often works.
   Her friends are having fun. (while)
9. She likes to have fun with her friends.
   She has exciting travel plans, (on the other hand)
10. She can't go to Venezuela.
    She pays for part of the airplane ticket, (unless)
11. Sara has an uncle in Caracas.
    She doesn't need to pay for a hotel, (therefore)
12. Sara will be very happy.
    She sees her uncle and her friends in Venezuela, (when)

EFFECTIVE LETTER-WRITING

Remember about the principal parts which an ordinary business letter should include: the sender's address and the date in the upper-right corner of the page or at the middle top if the sender uses the letterhead. Sometimes the sender's address may be placed at the end of the letter after the signature of the sender. In this case the inside address is placed at the beginning of the letter. The letter itself opens with salutation that may differ depending whether you write an informal social letter or business letter. In informal writing the usual salutation is Dear John, Dear Martyn, (the comma may be used after the greeting); in business letter you write the addresses title and the family name. Use a colon after the greeting in a business letter. Dear Mr. Woods: Dear Fellows of the college: Dear Mr. Johnson: or Dear Sirs: (if you are not sure of the names of the addresses).

The letter itself (the body of the letter) starts immediately under the salutation on the left margin.

The letter ends with the closing words or phrases and your signature. Your name clearly writer (or printed) should be added for the addressee to correctly address his/her answer. The closing words may be: *Sincerely; Sincerely yours (Yours sincerely); Respectfully; Faithfully yours (Yours*

faithfully); Yours; Yours truly; With love; Much love. The closing words are followed by your name or signature.

The formats of a business letter may be as follows:

The sender's address,
name, and the date

Inside address
Salutation

Body of the letter

The closing
Signature

OR:

The date

Inside address
Salutation

Body of the letter

The closing
Signature
The sender's address,
and the name

Exercise 1. Use the form of informal letter below. You may add more sentences if you wish. Be sure to give your correct address at the top. Use correct punctuation and capitalization.

Number and Street
City, Postal Code
Country
Date

Dear _____

I am very happy to _____. My name is ____. I live in ___. Would you like ___? We can ___.

I am ____ years old. I am ____. My eyes are ___ and my hair is ____. My hobbies are ____. My father is ___, and my mother is ___. They are ____. I also have ____ in my family. Their names are ___.

My city is ____. The weather in our parts is ___. The winters are ___. Do you have any ___? Do you have any ___? Are you interested in ____? What do you like most? Do you like ____? Are you ___?

Please write and tell me about yourself.

Sincerely,

_____

Exercise 2. Copy the letter, and make all the changes that are necessary. Remember the rules for commas, capitalizations, apostrophes, question marks, and exclamation points.

1239 lincoln boulevard
fairbanks alaska 99701
usa
october 15 1982

dear roberto

I am very happy today do you know the reason my uncle says i can visit Venezuela next summer wow super i can also see my grandmother in Chicago Illinois and my other grandmother in miami florida i can speak Spanish in miami i am coming to Caracas on June 1 is it a good time to visit you i hope so

sincerely sara

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES

v *Exercise 1.* Add the designated suffixes to the following words.

1. -able: vary, ply
2. -er: funny, carry
3. -ous: vary, luxury
4. -ly: easy, final
5. -ed: supply, stay
6. -ing: study, worry
7. -d: pay, lay
8. -hood: lively, likely
9. -ness: friendly, lonely
10. -ly: usual, cool

v *Exercise 2.* Find each subordinate clause in the following sentences and define it as a noun clause, an adjective clause, or an adverb clause.

1. Food manufacturers contend that modern processing often robs food of its natural colour.
2. What my son wants to wear or be or try to be is now almost entirely his business.
3. Grocers today must deal with shoppers whose basic attitudes are drastically changed.
4. As I talked to my neighbors, I found that all of them did depend on a world that stretched far beyond their property lines.
5. As it declines in value, money becomes more of an obsession.
6. If a pitcher who throws only a fastball and a curveball is in a tight situation, the batter can reasonably expect the fastball.
7. Bloodhounds do not follow tracks as people often believe. ... Because a trail so often hangs several inches or sometimes feet above the ground, hounds can follow a person even if he wades through water.
8. At present, computers are rapidly moving into offices around the world to take over secretarial chores that involve processing words.
9. We are a plugged-in society – plugged in to the tube, which all but assumes the role of parent, or teacher, or lover.
10. The language is what it is, and not what you want it to be.

(from *New York Times Magazine*)

v *Exercise 3.* Choosing *a* or *an*. To choose between *a* or *an*, listen to the beginning sound (not the spelling) of a word. If the word begins with a vowel sound, use an. If it begins with a consonant sound, use a. Write the lists below with an article before each word.

Vowel sounds:

_____instinct	___ an elegy	idea
_____aspirin	__ address	Italian
_____ache	___ office	American

Consonant sounds:

___ pill	____helper
___job	_____ problem
___ pain	____dance
___pharmacy	____doctor
___hotel	____airport
___headache	___ hobby

v *Exercise 4.* Write these sentences using the comparative and the superlative degrees of the adverbs.

1. She was reading too much. 2. She wasn't sleeping well. 3. She wasn't feeling well 4. She was working hard. 5. Barbara was staying very late. 6. Her teacher was pleased. She was getting good grades. 7. John was concerned about her. She was studying so hard.

Shopping list

a jar of milk	a glass of wine
a bottle of soda	a cup of coffee
a dozen eggs	a loaf of brown bread
a bunch of carrots	a pound of buttera piece of cherry pie
a bunch of bananas	a jar of jam a box of cereals
a pound of apples	a can of beans a piece of apple pie

v *Exercise 5.* Add commas where needed in the sentences below.

1. Anthony a grocery store owner was planning for a busy day. “Diane would you open the store at 9 o’clock?” said Anthony. "Of course that’s the time we always open,” said Diane.

2. Kelly said “Stephanie I’d like some fresh peanuts.” Yes but how many pounds would you like?” answered Stephanie.

3. Ms. Harmon asked “Martin what kind of fresh fruit do you have?” “Well let me check what came in this afternoon,” said Martin.

4. Alan the butcher had to wait on fifteen customers. “I don’t have time to wait Alan,” said Carol.

5. The manager Juan told everyone to be patient. “Please it will go quickly if you all take a number,” said Juan. “Yes you're right as usual,” said the crowd.

6. Martin the produce manager went behind the counter to help. Well they had sold all of their grapes and tomatoes before noon. “We only have one bushel of green beans left” said Martin.

7. Mr. Loster bought cherries bananas and corn. He was planning a special dinner for Sara his wife. Mr. Loster spent the afternoon cooking baking and cleaning.

Today July 18 is her birthday.

v *Exercise 6.* Add commas where needed in the paragraph below.

Men women boys and girls from across the nation participate in the Special Olympics. Because of this event patterned after the Olympic games boys and girls with disabilities have opportunities to compete in a variety of sports. The Special Olympics includes competition in track swimming and gymnastics. Volunteers plan carefully and they work hard to insure that the event will be challenging rewarding and worthwhile for all the participants. One of my neighbors Chris Bell once worked as a volunteer. “It was an experience that I’ll never forget” he said.

v *Exercise 7.* Add quotation marks and commas where needed in the sentences below.

1. Wait for me said Laura because I want to go with you.
2. Kim, did you write an article about spacecraft? asked Tom.
3. Where is the manager’s desk? inquired the stranger.
4. Joanne asked What is Eric’s address?
5. David asked How long did Queen Victoria rule the British Empire?
6. Joanne, did you bring your interesting article? asked the teacher.
7. Good morning said Tony.
8. Tom asked Did Jim hurt himself when he fell?
9. The meeting begins in ten minutes said Linda.
10. Come on, said the coach you’ll have to play harder to win this game!
11. Tony said, I know you’ll do well in your new job. You’re a hard worker.

v *Exercise 8.* Add colons where needed in the sentences below.

1. At 210 this afternoon, the meeting will start.
2. Please bring the following materials with you pencils, paper, erasers, and a notebook.
3. The meeting should be over by 4 3 0.
4. Those of you on the special committee should bring the following items cups, paper plates, forks, spoons, and napkins.
5. The meeting will deal with the following pool hours, swimming rules, and practice schedules.
6. The lifeguards will meet this evening from 8 0 0 to 10 0 0 to discuss responsibilities.
7. We will read the letter at 3 0 0 and have a question-and-answer session.

v *Exercise 9.* Add hyphens where needed in the sentences below.

1. We decided to attend a class on how to use less water when garden ing.
2. Our lawn and old fashioned flower gardens need too much water.
3. The sign up sheet at the door was for those who wanted to be on a mailing list.
4. Twenty seven people had already signed up.
5. We saw that our son and daughter in law were there, too.
6. He spotted them sitting on an aisle near the center of the audi torium.
7. The speaker was a well known expert on gardening.
8. We sat next to our family and learned about long term plans for water conservation.

v *Exercise10.* Circle each letter that should be capitalized below. Add punctuation where needed.

720 w. raven
newland, va 27890
may 4, 2006

Dear sirs:
on may 3, 2006, i received the compact disc player i had ordered from your catalog _____ the following pieces were missing from the package the battery pack the high quality headphones and the adapter please let me know what i should do about this _____ will you send the pieces or should I return the whole package_____ since your motto is that customers happiness is your goal i thought i would let you know that im not very happy about this_____ ive ordered other things in the past ____ they were great _____ what happened to my order this time_____ im waiting anxiously for your answer_____

Sincerely yours,
bonita Williams

v *Exercise 11.* Capitalize the words where necessary.

1. Lauren, does your friend live in miami, florida, or atlanta, georgia?
2. The potomac river forms the boundary between Virginia and maryland.
3. The Spanish explorers discovered the mississippi river before the english settlers landed at Jamestown.
4. The founder of the american red cross was clara barton.
5. Glaciers are found in the rocky mountains, the andes mountains, and the alps.

v *Exercise 12.* Add commas where needed in the sentences below.

1. Frank Mary and Patricia are planning a surprise party for their parents. It is their parents' fiftieth wedding anniversary and the children want it to be special. They have invited the people their father used to work with their mother's garden club members and long-time friends of the family. Even though the children are grown and living in their own homes it will be hard to make it a surprise.

For the surprise to work everyone will have to be sure not to say anything about their plans for that day. This will be especially hard for the Knudsens but they will do their best.

v *Exercise 13.* Add commas before or after the quotations below.

1. "Mary are you sorry that we have to cancel our plans"? asked Jean..
2. "Okay good question," she answered.
3. Carmen said "But we've done this every week for ten years!"
4. Jean said "We have to leave town soon."
5. Ivan asked "Can't you put it off just one day?"
6. "No I'm afraid we can't" his friend said.
7. "Then we'll just start over the following week said Eric cheerfully.
8. Jean said "I bet no one else has done this."
9. "I sure hate to spoil our record" said Eric.
10. "Don't worry about it" said Ivan.
11. "Yes everything will work out" said Jean.

v *Exercise 14.* Add quotation marks and other punctuation where needed in the sentences below.

1. Daddy, did you ever play football asked Tim.
2. Morris asked why didn't you come in for an interview?
3. I have never said Laurie heard a story about a ghost.

4. Dariya said Yuri thank you for the present.
5. When do we start on our trip to the mountains asked Bob.
6. Our guest said you don't know how happy I am to be in your house.
7. My sister said Kelly bought those beautiful flowers at the flower shop in Weymouth.

v *Exercise 15.* Add hyphens where needed in the sentences below.

1. The play was going to be in an old fashioned theater.
2. The theater was so small that there were seats for only ninety two people.
3. The vice president was played by Alan Lowe.

v *Exercise 16*. In the sentences below, add semicolons where needed.

1. Colleen is a clever teacher she is also an inspiring one.
2. Her lectures are interesting they are full of information.
3. She has a college degree in history world history is her specialty.
4. She begins her classes by answering questions she ends them by asking questions.

v *Exercise 17.* Add commas and quotation marks where needed in the sentences below.

1. His father congratulated him by saying "Jesse we are happy for you and we wish you the best in your new job."
2. Jesse replied "Well I'm also very excited about it and I want to thank all of you for the party and the gifts."
3. How did you get so lucky Jesse? asked Mike.
4. It wasn't luck answered Jesse because I studied before I applied for this job.
5. I didn't know you could study to apply for a job said Mike laughing.
6. Mike I read an employment guide before I applied said Jesse.
7. I have never heard of an employment guide! exclaimed Mike.
8. It's a great book said Jesse.
9. Jesse I'd like to apply for a job at Moran's said Mike.
10. Jesse replied Why don't you read my guide to prepare for the interview?

v *Exercise 18.* Insert apostrophes, colons, and hyphens where needed in the sentences below.

1. Joe King, Jesses best friend, is the one who gave Jesse the

employment guide to use for his interview at Morans.

2. Jesse didnt know important interview skills.
3. The guide offered twenty five helpful hints.
4. The guide suggested the following dress neatly, be on time, be polite, and be enthusiastic.
5. Jesse also used the guides suggestions for preparing a resume listing his work experience.
6. Jesses list contained these items his employers names and addresses, dates of employment, and job descriptions.
7. The guide said Jesse should be a well informed applicant, so he researched salespersons duties and made a list of questions to ask.
8. Jesses guide recommended getting to the interview early to have time to fill out the employers application forms.
9. Jesse arrived at Mr. Morans office at 345 for his 400 interview.
10. The interview lasted forty five minutes, and Jesse was relaxed and self confident when he left.
11. Mr. Morans phone call the next day at 130 let Jesse know he had gotten the job
12. Jesse needed to do the following pick up a salespersons manual, fill out employment forms, and enroll in the companys insurance program.

v *Exercise 19.* Rewrite the story below. Be sure to use capital letters and punctuation marks where they are needed.

sir waiter scott one of the worlds greatest storytellers was born in edinburgh, scotland, on august 15, 1771 walter had an illness just before he was two years old that left him lame for the rest of his life his parents were worried so they sent him to his grandparents farm they thought the country air would do him good

walters parents were right he was quite healthy by the time he was six years old he was happy, too walter loved listening to his grandfather tell stories about Scotland the stories stirred his imagination he began to read fairy tales travel books and history books it was these ear

ly stories that laid the groundwork for Scotts later interest in writing stories his most famous book *Ivanhoe* has been read by people around the world

v *Exercise 20.* Write the correct abbreviations for the days and months of the year. Capitalize them.

1. Tuesday _____
2. Wednesday_____
7. January _____
8. November _____

3. Thursday _____
4. Friday _____
5. Saturday _____
6. Sunday _____
9. September _____
10. August _____
11. October _____
12. December _____

v *Exercise 21.* Place quotation marks around the quotes. Add question marks and commas where needed.

EXAMPLE: “I’d like to go,” said Mary, “but I can’t.”

1. Jake asked Why did you throw the alarm clock out the window Because said Joan I wanted to see how time flies.
2. What did one wall say to another asked Bonnie I’ll meet you at the corner answered David.
3. Mother said Are your feet dirty Bobby Yes replied Bobby but don’t worry because I have my shoes on.
4. Anna asked What is black-and-white and red all over It’s a blushing zebra said Jake.
5. What did the rug say to the floor asked Mike. Don’t move replied Bonnie because I’ve got you covered.
6. Joan asked Why do sponges do a good job They become absorbed in their work said Carlos.

v *Exercise 22.* Correct the letter below. Add the necessary punctuation marks.

7216 melvin street
houston tx 77040
October 23 2006

dear fred,

I am doing a report on farm life. Do you have any information you can send me My report must be turned in three weeks from today. I can really use any help you can give me. pictures and facts would be helpful. The names of some books I could find at the library would also help a lot.

your friend,
jessie

v *Exercise 23.* Write the correct contractions for italicized words.

1. *It is* funny that *we are* lost.
2. Well *it is* time to get to work.
3. *You would* better cleaned up the trash together.
4. *You are* sure *we have* followed the directions correctly?
5. *I am* sure *they will* start looking for us soon.
6. We *did not* bring a map, but we *should have*.

7. *I will* bet that *we will* be here all night.
8. *We are* in trouble now because *I am* tired.

v *Exercise 24.* Replace each italicized phrase with a phrase that includes a possessive with an apostrophe.

1. We all liked *the story Jennifer told* the best.
2. The *setting of the story* was an old castle.
3. There was a prison in *the basement of the castle*.
4. *The attention of the students* was on Jennifer as she read.
5. A cruel man lived in *the tower of the castle*.
6. *The children of the cruel man* weren't allowed to play.

v *Exercise 25.* Add quotation marks, commas, and other punctuation marks where needed.

1. Henry stand by the door for a minute said Scott.
2. What for asked Henry.
3. I want you to hold the door answered Scott while I bring in this table.
4. Henry asked Are you going to carry that by yourself?
5. It's not very heavy said Scott.
6. What are you going to do with it asked Henry.
7. We need it for the kitchen said Scott.

v Exercise 26. Rewrite the letter. Add capital letters, periods, question marks, exclamation points, commas, quotation marks, and apostrophes where needed.

420 station st
park ridge il 60010
april 3 2006

dear mr thompson

i appreciate the time you spent with me tuesday _____i learned a great deal about thompsons freight lines and I am sure that i would do a good job for your company_____ i have two years of experience in shipping goods around the world ____

it was a pleasure to meet you and speak with you ____what a surprise to learn that you know my uncle joe so well he speaks very highly of you and your company

thank you again for seeing me _____iII call you in a few days____

yours truly
waynes carver

v *Exercise 27.* Use the correct end punctuation where needed in the paragraphs below.

Have you ever wondered what it would be like to live as America's pioneers did _____ You can visit log homes made to look like the original cabins of pioneer days. Then you can see how difficult life was for the pioneers who helped the country grow _____ The cabins were small and roughly buil _____ Many cabins had just one room Where was the kitchenMost of the cooking was done in the large fireplace The fireplace also supplied the only heat _____ Wasn't it cold _____ You can be sure the winter winds whistled between the logsAnd where did the pioneers sleep _____ Most cabins had a ladder reaching up to the bedroom loft _____ The furniture in the cabins was usually as roughly built as the cabins themselves _____ All the clothing was handmade by the family _____ They ate food grown and caught on their land _____ Would you have liked to live in those times _____

v *Exercise 28.* Capitalize the words and add the correct end punctuation where needed in the paragraphs below.

Have you ever seen pictures of northern minnesotaIt is a region of many lakes ____ My family once spent a week on little birch lakeWhat a sight it was There were thousands of white birches reflected in the blue water of the little birch lake _____ The fishing was great___every night we cooked fresh fish for our dinner _____ The nearest town was hackensackAt the waterfront was a large statue of diana marie kensack _____ She is seated at the water's edge Her gaze is fixed on the horizon_____Do you know who she was_____Legends say that she was paul bunyan's sweetheartShe is still waiting at the shore for him to come back to herBe sure to visit diana when you are in Minnesota _____

v Exercise 29. Insert the apostrophe where it has been left out.

1. Building a new homes the dream of many people
2. It can also become a persons worst nightmare
3. Cant you see that planning carefully is the key?
4. If you dont plan everything, somethings bound to _____ go wrong.
5. Youd better start by finding out how many rooms _____ youll need.
6. An architects view may also be helpful.
7. Getting many opinions can help you decide whats best._____
8. But youd better already have some idea before you _____ begin, or youll have problems.

9. Find out everyones wishes for their rooms.
10. Others ideas may be completely different from yours.
11. If you talk it over, everyones ideas can be used.
12. You wouldnt want to end up with a home youre ____ completely unhappy with.
13. After all, your homes the place where youll be spending ___ most of your time.

v *Exercise 30.* Pretend that you and your friends are planning an outing. Write a conversation that might take place between you and your friends. Use the names of the persons being addressed. In some sentences, use *yes*, *no*, *oh*, or *well*. Punctuate your sentences correctly.

v *Exercise 31.* Write capital letters in each word that should be capitalized in the sentences below.

1. last summer we toured montana and alberta.
2. my friend bob liked hiking in the rocky mountains.
3. the trip down the snake river was my favorite part.
4. we spotted two american bald eagles.
5. i liked glacier park best.
6. bob bought a book named *tales of the old west.*
7. dr. vicenik is governor adams's personal doctor.
8. mrs. vicenik and mr. morrison are brother and sister.
9. ms. louis has invited dr. vicenik's son to speak to our group.
10. we made a poster with this information on it:

    walter vicenik will speak
    at winston school
    on tues., apr. 25 at 3:00

v *Exercise 32.* Add commas, quotation marks, and apostrophes where needed in each sentence below.

1. Mark do you know where George is asked Donna.
2. No I dont answered Mark.
3. Hes supposed to meet you Kiko and me here she said.
4. Mark asked Why didnt you tell us
5. I did! Donna exclaimed. Dont you remember our talk yesterday
6. Oh now I do said Mark.

7. Donna said III bet George didnt remember.

8. Heres Kiko. At least she remembered and shes ready to help plan the fund-raiser said Donna.

9. Oh Im sure George will be here said Mark.

10. Hes always ready to meet new people talk and help others out.

v *Exercise 33.* Correct the letter below. Capitalized the words and add missing commas, periods, quotation marks, and apostrophes. Write the correct end punctuation on the blank after each sentence.

955 s rimfire
Clayton mo 64645
aug 25 2006

dear jose

i cant wait to see you _ its going to be great visiting mexico city i know its now one of the largest cities in the world_____ i cant imagine such a huge place____ when i went to see dr fulton for my shots, he said eric my boy don't worry about anything mexico is a wonderful place to visit ive been there many times and always enjoyed myself i said dr fulton did you ever get lost trying to find your way around he said he hadnt but he also always had a good guide

im glad ill have you there to show me around honestly jose youve got to know how exciting this is_____ i want to see everything do everything and learn everything i can about your country

your friend
eric

v *Exercise 34.* Make corrections in the story below. Capitalize the words. Write the correct end punctuation on the blank after each sentence.

There is a russian folktale named "the coming of the snow Maid___" it tells about winter in russia where winter is very long and very cold ___ ivan a peasant and his wife marie had no children ____ they often watched their neighbors children at play in the snow ____ one day marie got an idea____ ivan lets make a snow child she said ____ we can pretend it is our own ____ the snow child came alive and they called

her Snow Maid ___ she grew rapidly until early june ___ then she disappeared in a tiny cloud ____ dont cry marie said ivan ____ snow maid has returned to the sky but she will come back to us next September ____

v *Exercise 35.* Correct the text. Add all necessary punctuation marks needed in the sentences: capitalization, apostrophes, commas, periods, question marks, hyphens, quotation marks.

EMILY DICKINSON:
An Inland Soul

One of americas great poets, emily dickinson belongs more to the twentieth century than to the century in which she lived. Born in amherst, massachusetts, december 10 1830 emily remained for her entire life in the town of her birth. Other than a few infrequent trips to boston, washington, and philadelphia, which she took as a young woman, she was content to stay at home, finding meaning in the nearathand her family her friends and the phenomena of nature. Though her thoughts were expressed in hundreds of poems she remained basically an unpublished poet during her lifetime, and her position in American literature did not become clear until more than 25 years after her death in 1886.

Daughter of edward dickinson a massachusetts legislator and a respected citizen of amherst emily was educated at amherst academy and at mount holyoke seminary a nationally known girls school nearby. She was wellliked by her classmates and teachers and did well in the study of literature and music. Classmates would gather around her to hear her make up short witty stories. She was cheerful and quickwitted, and her earliest writings show an instinctive love for humour and jokes. Although she was not pretty she was a charming woman with a pleasant way of dealing with people. A cousin once said of her she was different emily had more charm than anyone I ever knew.

v *Exercise 36.* Read and feel how the meaning and the tone of the poem changed when the dashes and capitalizations are present in comparison with the altered version of early edition of Emily Dickinson's poetry which omitted her system of punctuation.

(*Altered Version*)	(*Emily Dickinson's version*)
Of bronze and blaze	Of Bronze –and Blaze –
The north tonight,	The North –Tonight –
So adequate it forms,	So adequate –it forms –
So preconcerned with itself,	So preconcerned with itself –
So distant to alarms	So distant –to alarms –

v Exercise 37. Correct the text. Add all necessary punctuation marks needed in the sentences: capitalization, apostrophes, commas, periods, question marks, hyphens, quotation marks.

ERNEST HEMINGWAY:
Tragic Genius

ernest miller hemingway one of six children was born into the family of a small town doctor at oak park, illinois, on july 21 1899. He was active in sports; and under the guidance of his father, he came to love the outdoors becoming an excellent hunter and fisherman. His parents wanted him to become a doctor or a musician but after graduation from high school he began his writing career as a sports reporter for the k*ansas city star.*

When the united states entered world war I, hemingway left his job and tried to enlist in the army. After repeated rejections because of his youth he was finally accepted as an ambulance driver with the red cross in italy. Shortly before his 19th birthday, he was badly wounded by enemy fire and spent several weeks in a hospital in milan. This experience would provide material for his future novel a farewell to arms. After leaving the hospital he enlisted in the italian arditi an infantry unit and served until the armistice on november 11 1918.

hemingway returned to chicago in 1919 and then went to toronto, canada, where he worked for the toronto star. Two years later, he was appointed to the stars international news bureau and was assigned to paris. From 1921 to 1927, he lived in europe where he worked hard at realizing his ambition to become a writer. Joining the literary circle of expatriate american writers brought together by poet author gertrude stein, hemingway profited from his association with writers like her, ezra pound and f. scott Fitzgerald. he wrote his first three works three short stories and ten poems (1923); in our time (1925), a collection of short stories and the torrents of spring (1926) a novel which went unnoticed by the public.

1927 hemingway published a collection of short stories called men without women. The following year he returned to the united states where he lived off and on for the next ten years at key west florida. There he worked on a farewell to arms (1929) the following passage from the novel has often been pointed out as a statement of hemingways world view as well as the key to the novels meaning

If people bring so much courage to this world the world has to kill to break them, so of course it kills them the world breaks everyone and afterward many are strong at the broken places but those that will not break it kills it kills the very

good and the very gentle and the very brave impartially if you are none of these you can be sure that it will kill you too but there will be no special hurry

v *Exercise 38.* Remember that speech, even careful speech, may contain performance errors, in which the speaker may use the wrong words, make ungrammatical statements, and use incorrect pronouns. On a separate sheet of paper, change the sentences below to make them clear written statements.

A. And when the contract came for him to renew his contract, maybe ask for more money of his financiers who backed him, he traveled New York and found that they had indeed made him sign a contract with fine print, and he no longer owned Oswald.

B. Disney began to realize, as Mickey grew more powerful and as letters came in saying they would not stand for Mickey's terrible antics, that Mickey had to be a gentleman, or a gentlemouse.

C. And so he hit upon the idea, inspired by MGM Studios with its stable of stars, of having different kinds of cartoons. And so he hit upon silly symphony, in which they could develop any story they wanted to, to develop new characters, without a word being spoken and just music.

D. There's another story that there're always owls in Disney films because when he was a young boy, he climbed up onto the barn the second story and picked it up and wanted to draw it, wanted to look at it closely.

v Exercise 39. Remember some irregular plurals of the nouns.

a). Some nouns ending in *f* or f*e* change the *f* or *fe* to *v*, and suffix –*es* is added: calf – calves, elf – elves, half – halves, knife – knives, life – lives, loaf – loaves, self – selves, shelf – shelves, thief –thieves, wife –wives,, wolf – wolves;

b) some nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form the plural with the addition of the suffix –s only: roofs, chiefs, beliefs, safes;

c) another group of irregular plurals fits no pattern. This group includes nouns that have been adopted from foreign languages and have retained their foreign plural endings. Some of the most common of these follow:

analysis – analyses, bacterium – bacteria, basis – bases,
crisis – crises, criterion – criteria, curriculum – curricula,
datum – data, hypothesis – hypotheses, larva – larvae,
medium – media, phenomenon – phenomena.

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